

Vol. II.—January to July 1940

AN ATLAS - HISTORY OF
THE SECOND GREAT WAR

by
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AUTHOR'S NOTE

A WAR history of the spring and early summer of 1940—especially when limited, as in a volume like this, to a bare outline of military happenings, with maps recording the extent of enemy advances—cannot make cheerful reading. But there are other things to be borne in mind. The gallantry of the retreating armies which fought their way to Dunkirk, the endless skill and heroism of the R.A.F., the endurance and indomitable spirit of our seamen; above all, the hardening and unifying of the national purpose in Britain—these things cannot be put down in maps or diagrams. They are, nevertheless, an important part of the history of these months of war. And the story of the months that are to come will be a different story, precisely because the will to win in this or any other struggle against tyranny can only be strengthened by a resolute facing of the lessons of failures and defeats.

J. F. H.

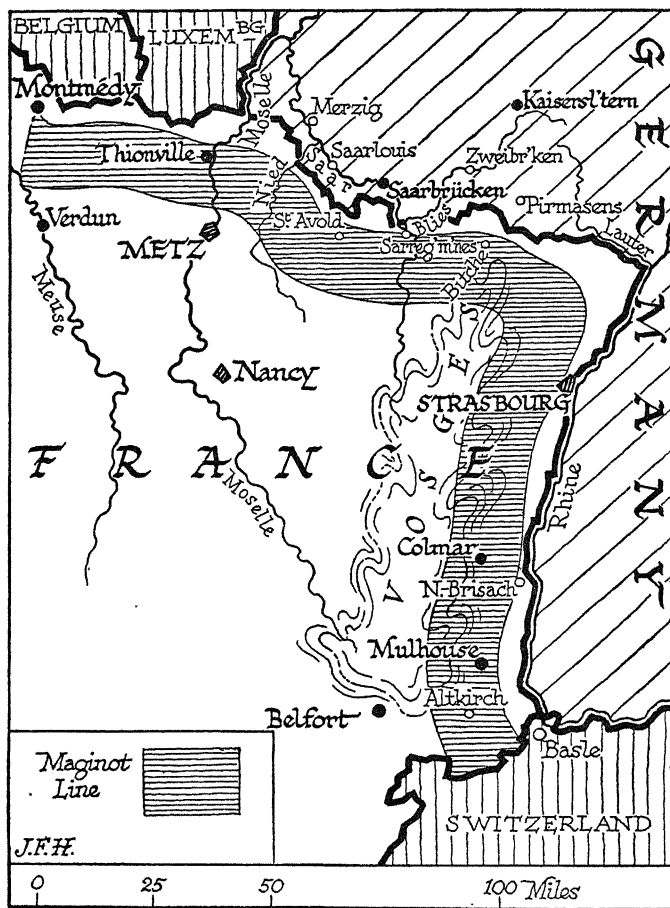


The North Sea—

THROUGHOUT the early months of 1940, while the war on land seemed to have reached a condition of stalemate, the struggle at sea continued with the fiercest intensity. German air attacks on merchant shipping were reported almost daily, and U-boats maintained their persistent warfare on neutral as well as British vessels. During the last days of 1939 the Admiralty announced the laying of a "mine barrage" off nearly the whole length of the east coast of Britain, with a space between the barrage and the coast for navigation. The area so protected extended from the Moray Firth to the Thames.

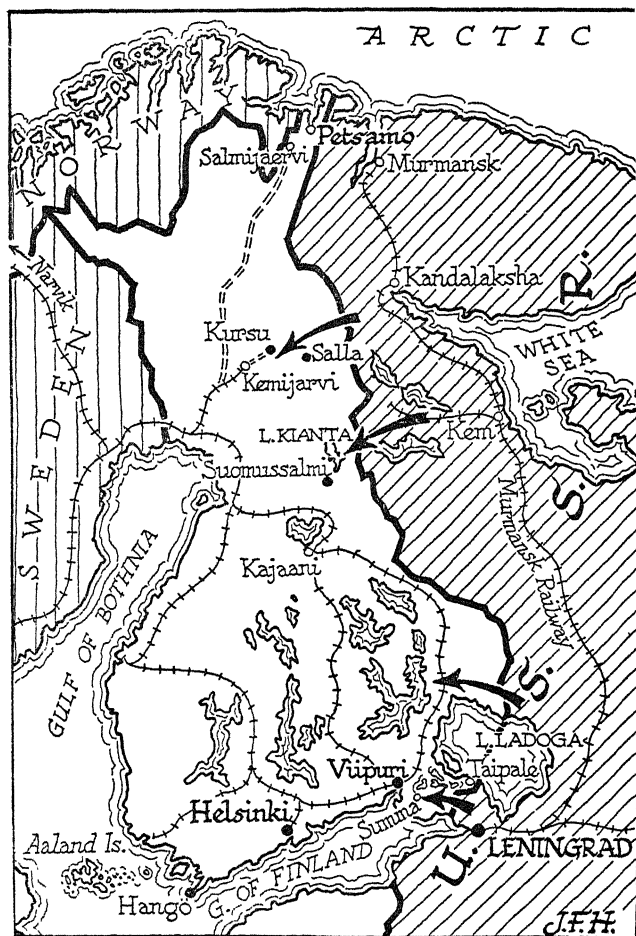
R.A.F. raids on the Bight of Heligoland and the island of Sylt struck at the German bases ; and submarine attacks on the German coastal defences were made on a considerable scale. From one of these, in January, the British submarines *Seahorse*, *Starfish*, and *Undine* failed to return.

There were periodical German raids, never in great force, on various points of the east coast of Britain. In March, 14 German machines succeeded in reaching Scapa Flow, scoring a hit on a warship which caused only minor damage, and killing a civilian, the first casualty of this kind.



The Western Front (January to May)—

PRIOR to the launching of the German offensive on Holland and Belgium in May there was a situation of virtual stalemate on the western front, between the Maginot and Siegfried Lines. The daily *communiqués* reported small local actions of varying kinds—patrol activity, raids on or by advanced units, reconnoitring patrols, ambushes, periodical artillery bombardments. Most of this small-scale fighting took place in the Lorraine and northern Alsace sectors, between the Moselle and the Saar, and in the valleys of the Nied and Blies.

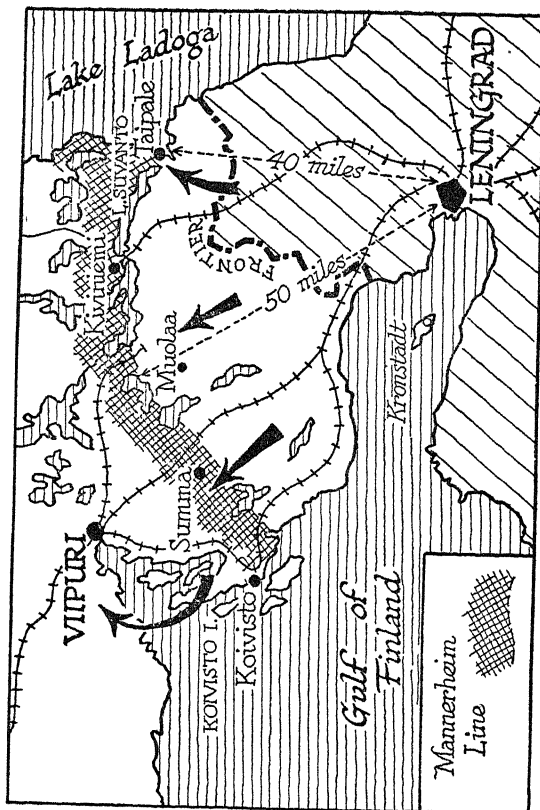


The War in Finland (I)—

DESPITE the bitterness of the northern winter the Russian invasion of Finland continued.

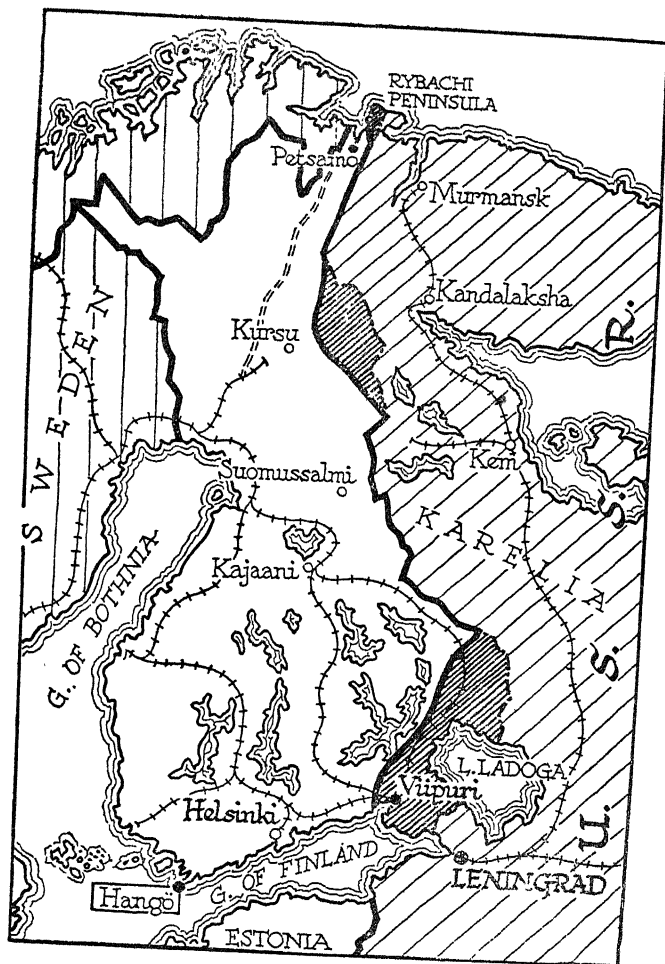
Petsamo and Salmijaervi in the north had been captured by the Russians, and in this area henceforth there was only guerilla warfare. During January the Russians made great efforts to cut through the "waist" of Finland towards the Gulf of Bothnia. They reached Kursu, in the Salla region, but were then driven back. A little farther south, in the Suomussalmi area, the Finns defeated heavy attacks on either side of Lake Kianta. In this northern region Finnish guerillas made their way across the Russian frontier and damaged the Murmansk railway.

In the south of the country the Russian attacks in the Karelian Isthmus, and to the north of Lake Ladoga, continued; and early in January a great Russian offensive against Taipale, at the eastern end of the Mannerheim Line, was smashed.



The War in Finland (2)—

EARLY in February the Russians launched attacks in far greater force than previously on the Mannerheim Line. The main drive was along the coastal railway towards the western end of the line, in the direction of Viipuri. The fiercest fighting was in the Summa sector where, after three weeks of unremitting attacks at enormous cost of men and material, the Russians forced their way to within a few miles of Viipuri. The capture of Koi-visto, on the coast, enabled them to cross the frozen gulf of Viipuri and land west of that town, thus taking the whole Finnish defence line in flank.



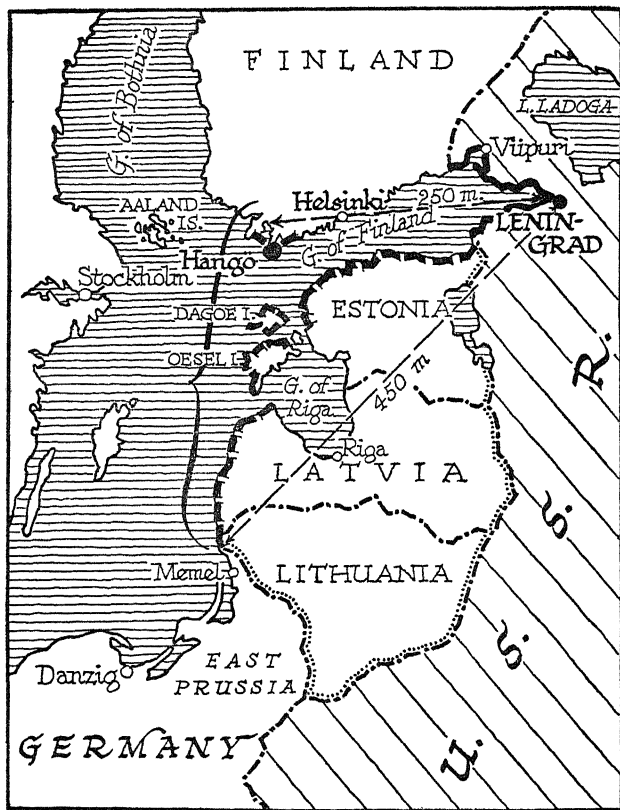
The Russo-Finnish Peace Treaty—

THE peace treaty between Russia and Finland was signed on 12th March. The war had lasted 104 days. By the treaty very considerable areas of Finnish territory were ceded to the Soviet. The most important of these was the area west and north of Lake Ladoga, including the town of Viipuri. This was the most industrially developed region of Finland, containing over 10 per cent. of the total population.

Farther north Russia gained an area through which a railway is to be built, linking the Murmansk line at Kandalaksha with the Finnish line to the head of the Gulf of Bothnia.

In the extreme north the western part of the Rybachi peninsula went to Russia, and she also acquired certain privileges in the port of Petsamo, together with the right of direct communication, across Finnish territory, with Norway.

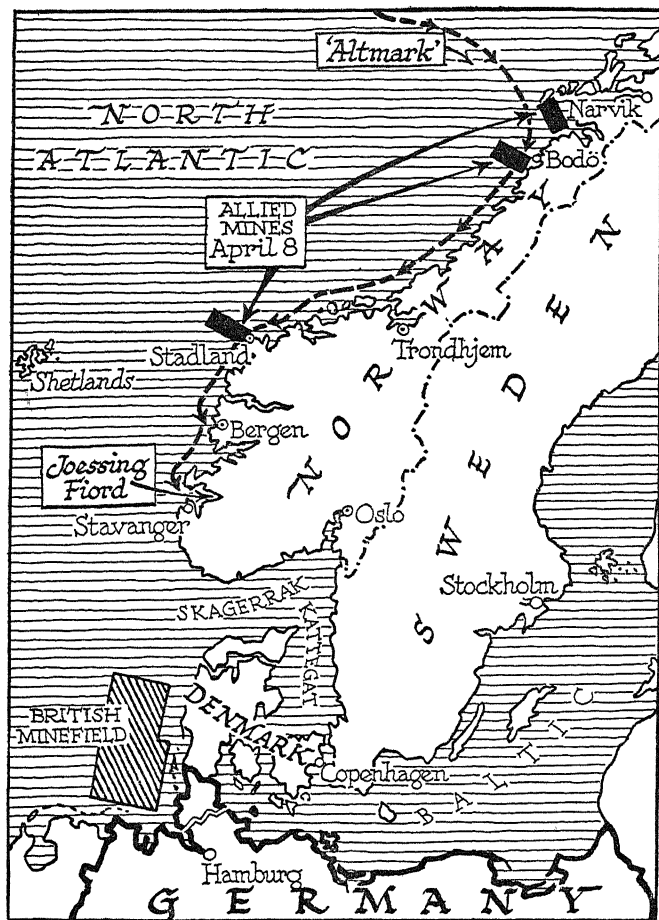
The Soviet obtained a 30-year lease of the port of Hangö, at the entrance to the Gulf of Finland, and possession of certain small islands in the Gulf.



Russia and the Eastern Baltic—

THE acquisition of Hangö from Finland, and the establishment there of a naval and air base, completed the Russian plan for the better defence of Leningrad which had been begun by her agreement with the three Baltic states, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, in October 1939. The map shows the area of coastline now under Russian control.

[In June the Soviet Government presented ultimatums to the three states, accusing their governments of anti-Soviet intrigues. The ultimatums were accepted, the personnel of the governments changed, and the Russian armed forces in each state, particularly in Lithuania, very considerably increased.]



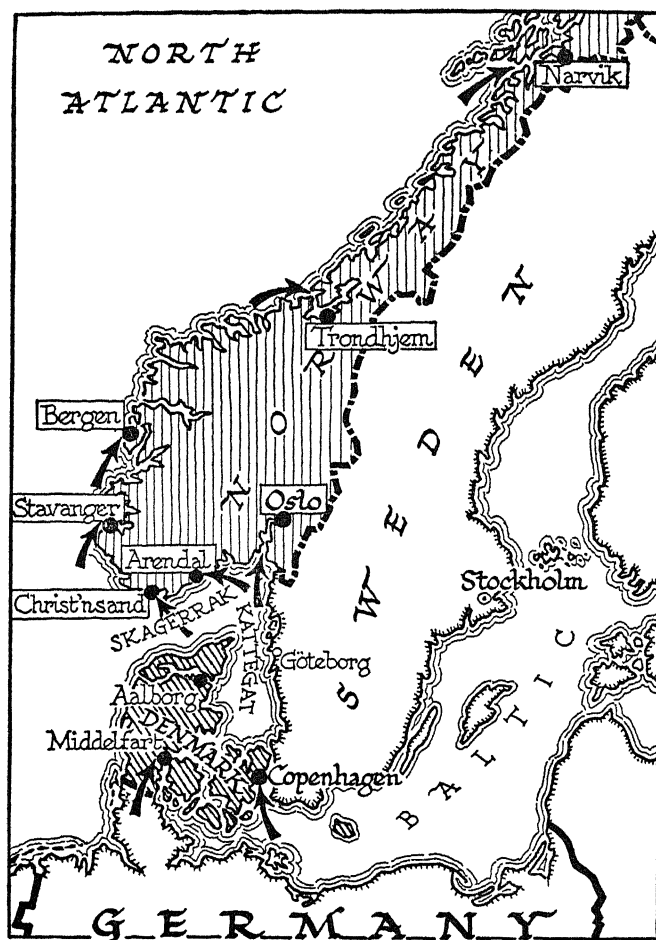
The "Altmark"

Episode—

THROUGHOUT the winter, while the Baltic route was closed by ice, German ships had carried Swedish iron ore from the Norwegian port of Narvik, using Norwegian territorial waters down the coast to the Skaggerak.

On 15th February aircraft of the British coastal command identified the German ship *Altmark*, taking refuge in Norwegian waters. The *Altmark* was the auxiliary vessel which had accompanied the *Graf Spee*, and it had on board the crews of the British ships sunk by that warship. By Admiralty orders British destroyers entered neutral waters with the object of searching the *Altmark* and rescuing the prisoners. Men of the destroyer *Cossack* boarded her in Joessing Fiord on 16th February, and released 299 British seamen.

Nearly two months later, German use of Norwegian waters having continued, the Allies announced (8th April) that they had laid three minefields along the western coast of Norway.

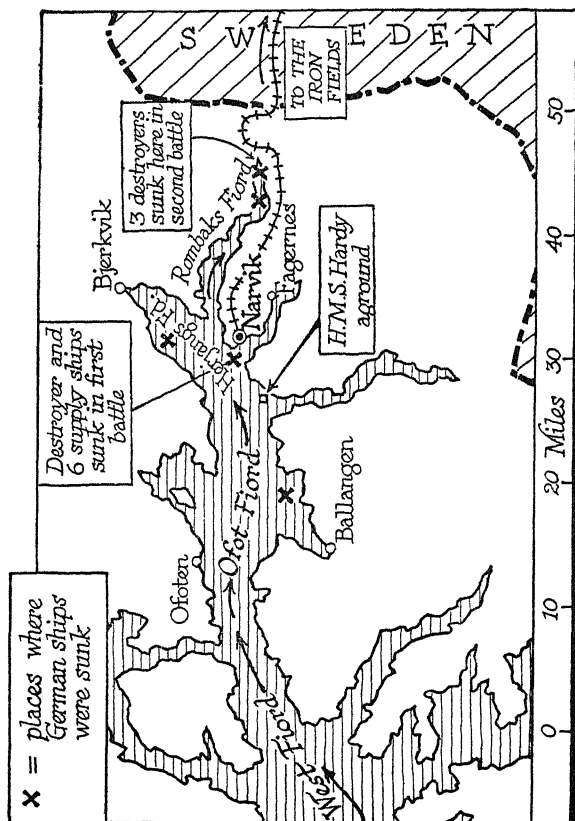


Germany invades Norway and Denmark—

THE British destroyer *Glowworm*, returning home after laying mines (see previous map), met German warships off the west coast of Norway on 8th April, and was sunk. Early the following morning German troops were landed at Oslo, Arendal, Christiansand, Stavanger, Bergen, Trondhjem, and Narvik.

At the same time German troops crossed the Slesvig frontier into Denmark, occupying Middelfart and the Little Belt bridge, while warships entered the Great Belt, and landed troops at Copenhagen in the Sound. German air units landed on Danish aerodromes and also on airfields in southern Norway.

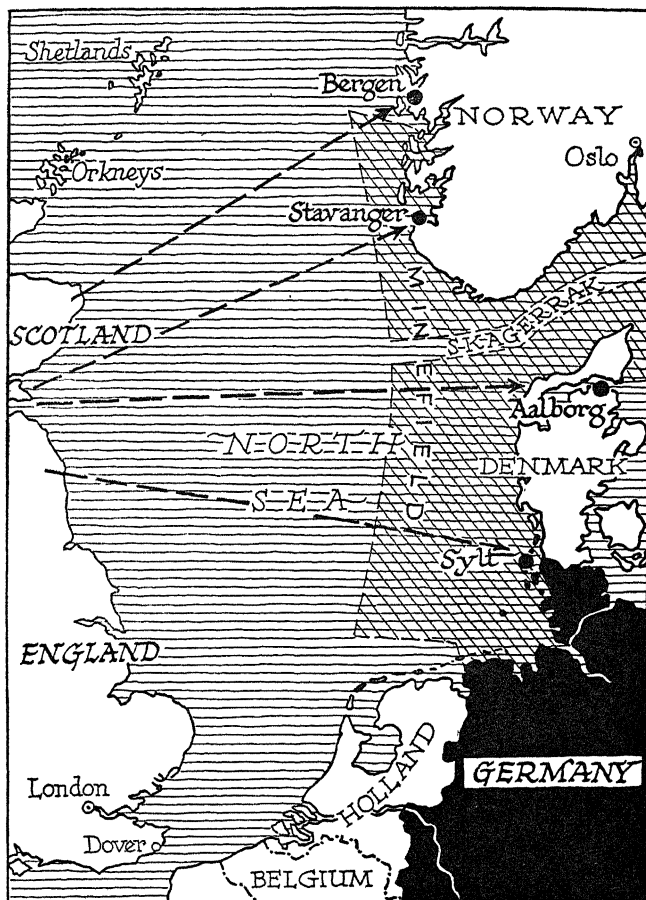
The Danes offered no resistance to the German occupation. The Norwegian Government immediately ordered general mobilization, and, when the German warships entered Oslo Fiord, moved to Hamar, 80 miles to the north.



The Battles of Narvik—

ON the day after the German invasion of Norway five British destroyers attacked the port of Narvik, meeting six German destroyers within the inner fiord. During this engagement the British destroyer *Hunter* was sunk, and the *Hardy* ran ashore. A German destroyer was torpedoed, three others hit and left burning, and seven store-carrying merchant ships sunk.

Three days later (13th April) a British naval force, led by the battleship *Warspite*, forced the fiord, sweeping up mines on their way, and sinking seven German destroyers after a desperate resistance. Three British destroyers were damaged, but not seriously. German forces, however, still held the town of Narvik itself.

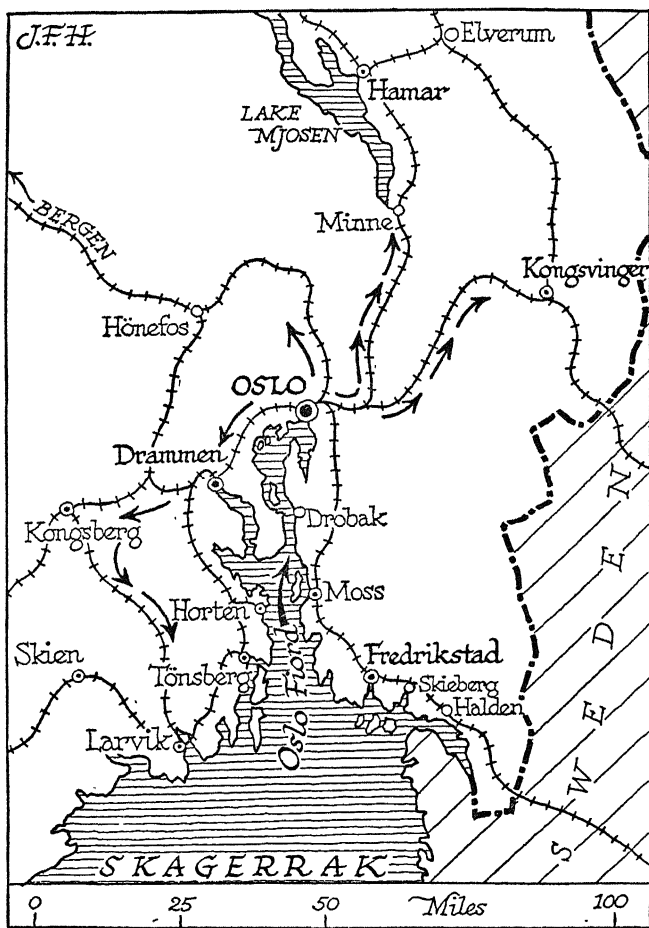


The Struggle for the Skaggerak—

IMMEDIATELY after the German attack on Norway and the occupation of Denmark the British Admiralty announced the laying of a great new minefield covering the Danish and southern Norwegian coasts, with a channel left open in the Skaggerak giving access to Sweden.

During these first few days the German navy lost heavily in cruisers, destroyers, submarines, and troopships.

From the outset of the campaign in Norway, and throughout its whole course, British air forces heavily raided the German bases at Sylt, Aalborg (northern Denmark), Stavanger, Bergen, and Oslo.

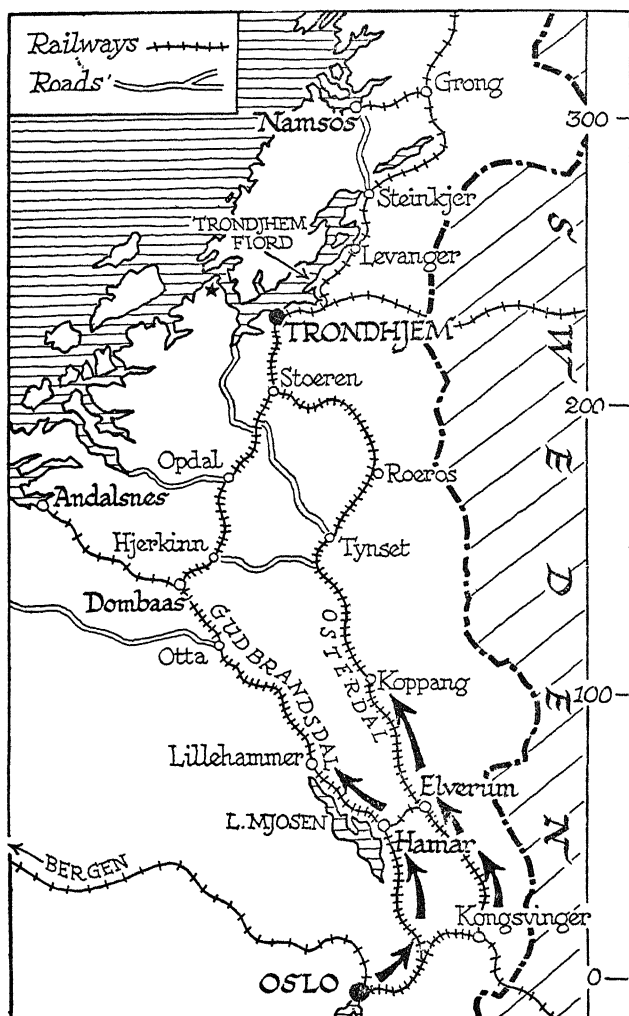


The Norwegian Campaign (I)—

THE German occupation of Oslo, the Norwegian capital, was effected, with the help of treachery from within, a few hours after the first invasion of the country. A small German force immediately made a dash north towards Hamar and Elverum, in an unsuccessful effort to capture the King and the members of the Government.

During the next four or five days the relatively thickly populated area east of Oslo Fiord, with the towns of Drammen, Kongsberg, and Larvik, was occupied; while to the west of the Fiord fresh German reinforcements were landed, and the towns of Fredrikstad and Halden seized.

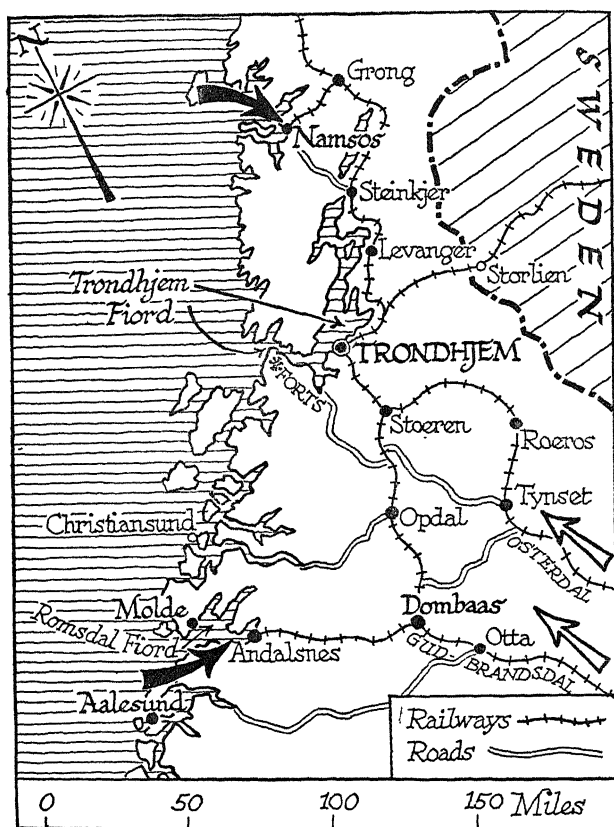
Severe fighting with Norwegian troops took place on both sides of Lake Mjosen, and west and north of Kongsvinger, before the German forces advancing north to make contact with Trondhjem could enter the Gudbrandsdal and Osterdal valleys (see next map).



The Norwegian Campaign (2)—

THE main aim of the German invaders based on Oslo was to join forces with the troops landed at Trondhjem, so cutting off all southern Norway. The two main routes along which the advance had to be made were the Gudbrandsdal, leading from Hamar and Lake Mjosen to Dombaas ; and the Osterdal, to the east of this, running parallel with the Swedish frontier.

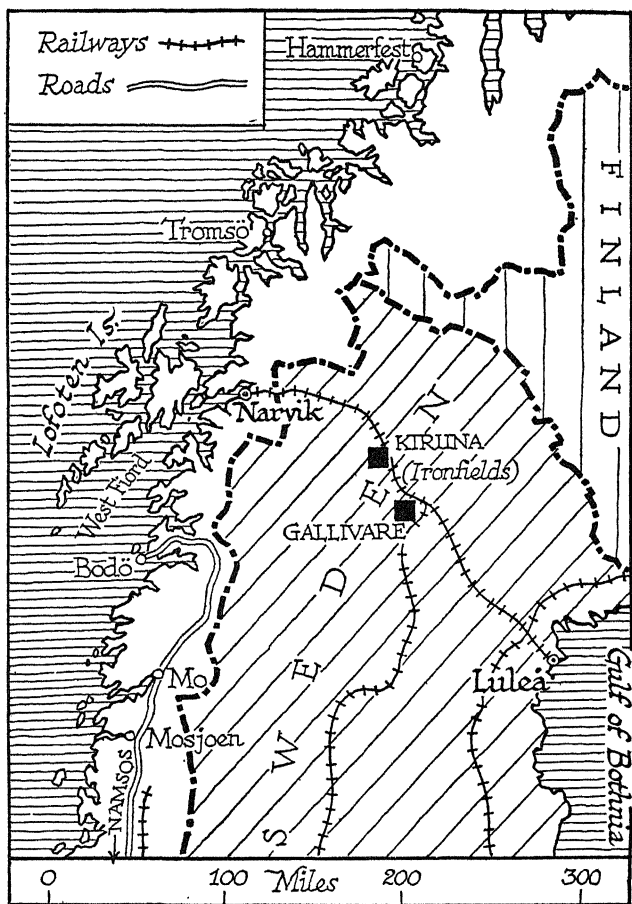
On 15th April it was officially announced that British troops had landed at various points in Norway. The main landings were north and south of Trondhjem. From Namsos British forces pressed down to attack Trondhjem from the north, seizing Steinkjer at the head of Trondhjem Fiord ; while to the south of the town, after landings at Andalsnes, Molde, and other points, they occupied Dombaas and advanced some way south down the Gudbrandsdal towards Lillehammer, where they made contact with the Norwegian troops contesting the German advance north.



The Norwegian Campaign (3)—

THE Allied forces in Norway (French troops had now also arrived) had to fight under the terrible disadvantage of having no bases for fighter aircraft ; while the Germans, operating from the captured airfields in the south of the country, subjected them to continuous and intensive bombing.

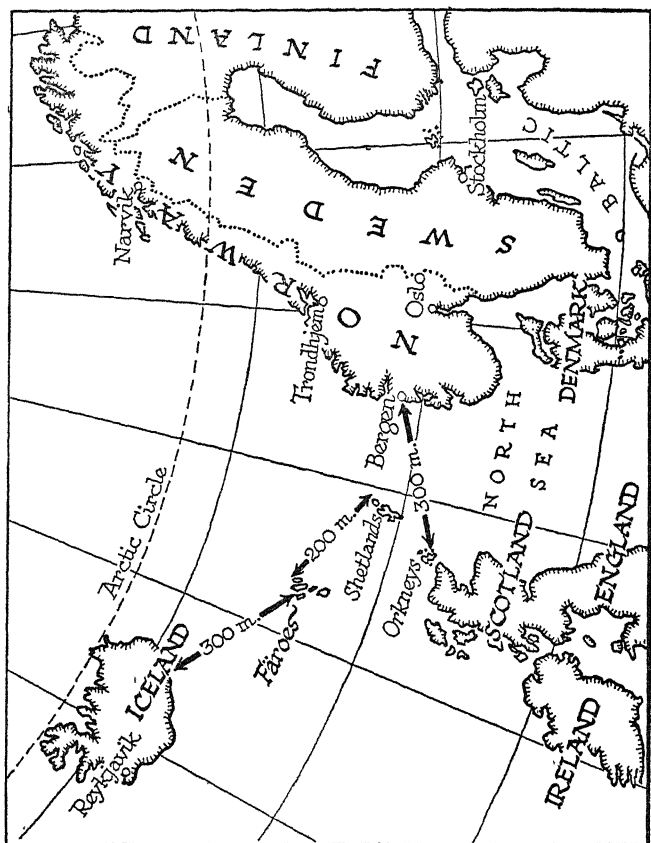
Withdrawal from the points held in the Gudbrandsdal was soon necessary, and the main Allied concentration was then along the line of the Dombaas-Stoeren railway. This line was shortly attacked along the roads from Tynset by German troops advancing from the Osterdal. On 30th April the Germans claimed to have captured Dombaas, and to have established contact near Stoeren with their troops holding Trondhjem. Two days later (2nd May) Mr. Chamberlain announced the withdrawal of all Allied forces south of Trondhjem ; and the following day a British *communiqué* reported the re-embarkation, without loss, of the troops at Namsos.



The Norwegian Campaign (4)—

AFTER the withdrawal from southern Norway the struggle for the iron-ore port of Narvik continued. German troops pressed northward from Namsos, capturing Mosjoen and Mo, and destroying Bodö by air bombing. Meanwhile further Allied forces were landed near Narvik, and British warships shelled the port. Its capture by the Allies was announced on 29th May ; and a few days later British troops were re-embarked from the Bodö region, after having delayed the German advance northward until Narvik was secured.

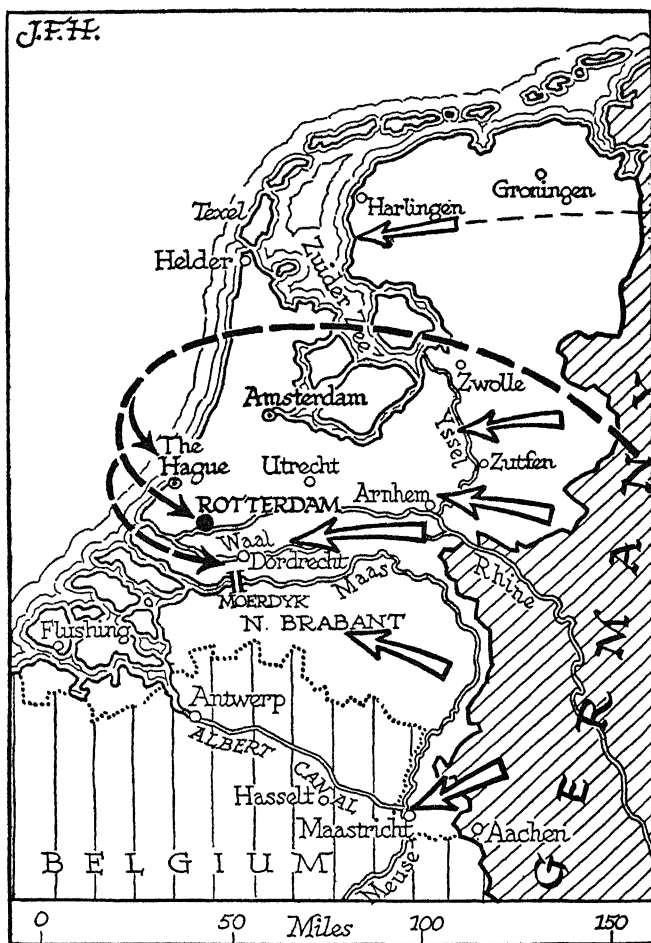
On 11th June, after depredations had been undertaken to prevent any use of the port by Germany for a considerable time, all Allied troops were withdrawn from Narvik and from northern Norway. This decision was made "with the foreknowledge and understanding of His Majesty the King of Norway and the Norwegian Government." The King and the members of the Government travelled to Britain.



Iceland and the Faeroes—

ONE result of the German occupation of Denmark was to give Britain two new bases in the North Atlantic—the Faeroe Islands and Iceland. The former, situated some 200 miles north-west of the Shetlands, were a Danish possession. Iceland, originally also Danish, has since 1918 been an independent State, though giving allegiance to the Danish Crown.

On 10th May British forces landed in Iceland, after explicit guarantees by the British Government that the purpose was solely to ensure the security of the island against German invasion.

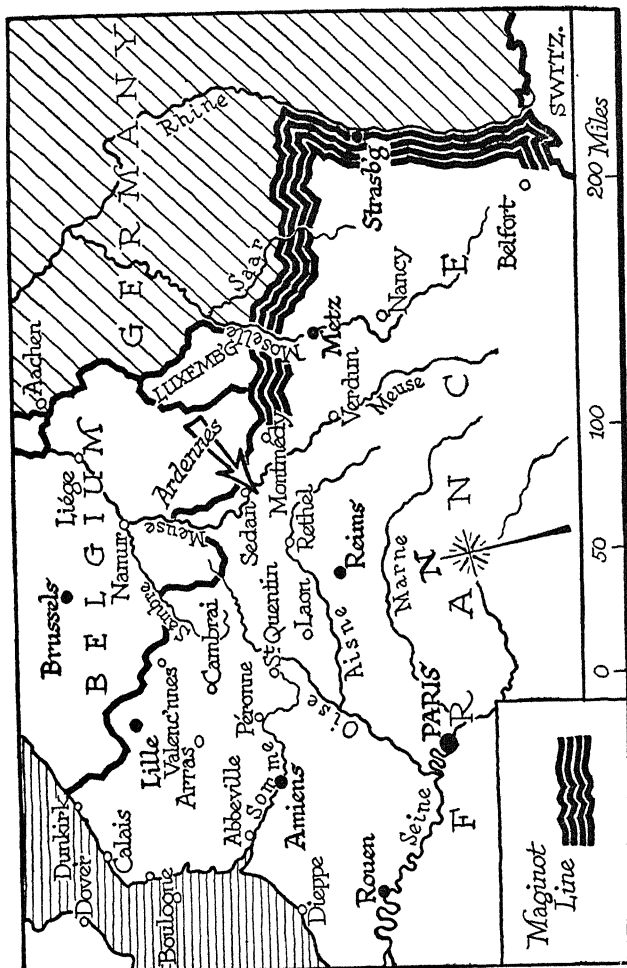


Germany attacks Holland—

At 3 a.m. on the morning of 10th May Germany launched an assault on Holland, Belgium, and Luxemburg. The Dutch resistance was overcome within 5 days.

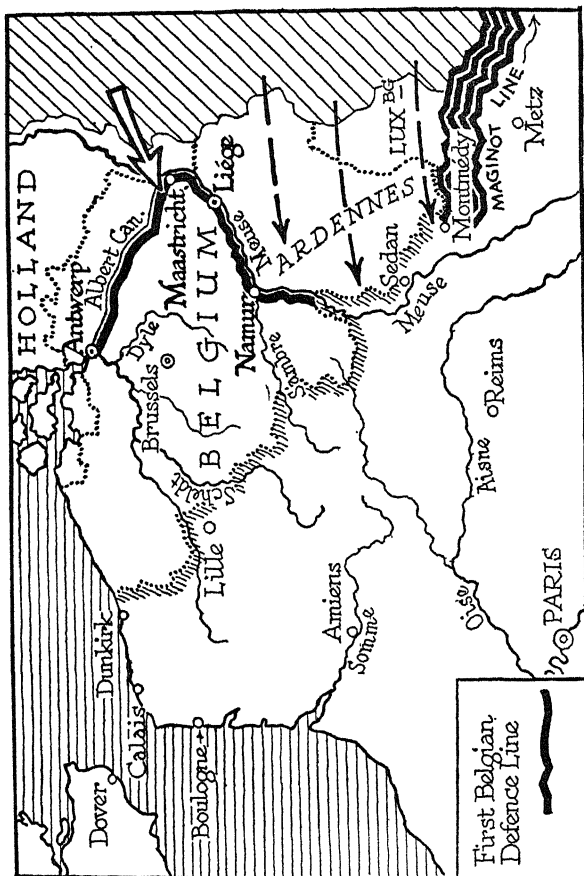
An hour after the first invaders crossed the frontiers German parachute troops in large numbers landed in Rotterdam, Dordrecht, and near the Hague. In Rotterdam they seized the airport, and the bridges. So strongly did they entrench themselves that, despite furious fighting, they were still holding parts of the city when the German army entered days later. It was the first time that parachute troops had been used on a large scale in actual warfare.

The Dutch armies held the line of the rivers Yssel and Maas. The Germans forced a crossing of the former at Arnhem, while an undestroyed bridge at Maastricht enabled them to turn the flank not only of the southern Dutch line but of the Belgian defensive positions along the Albert Canal.



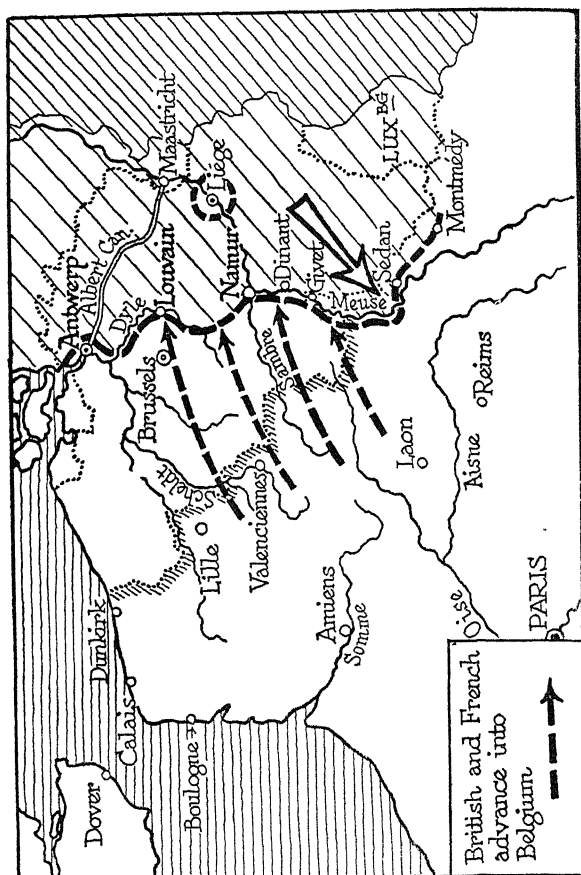
The Maginot Line and the Franco-Belgian Frontier—

THE great aim of the German offensive was of course to outflank the whole French defence system of the Maginot Line, the north-western end of which was in the region of Montmédy, just east of the Meuse. The map shows the Maginot Line in relation to the Franco-Belgian frontier, and illustrates the significance of the desperate German assaults, in the early stages of the battle, around Sedan, on the Meuse north-west of Montmédy.



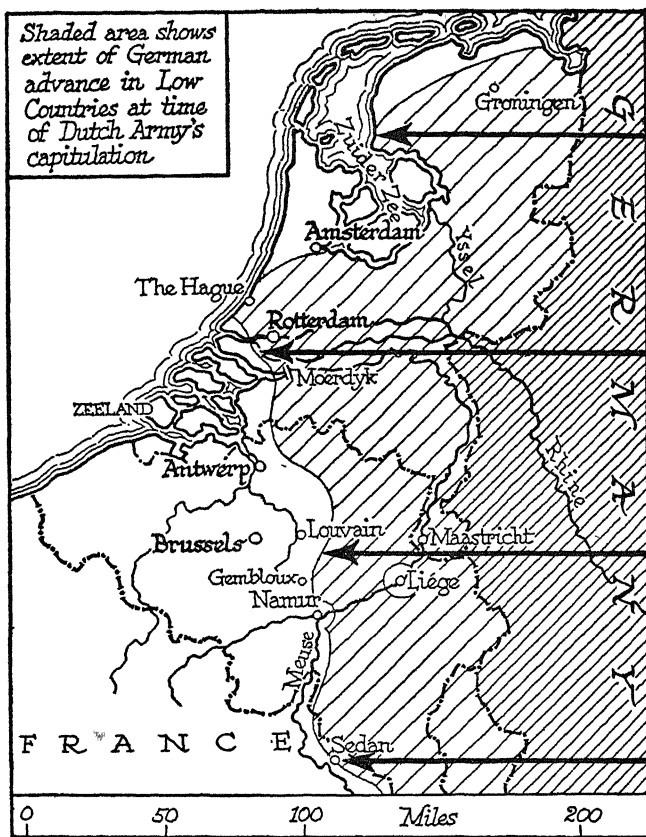
The Battle of the Meuse (I)—

THE main Belgian defence positions ran from Antwerp along the line of the Albert Canal to Maastricht, and then, south-westward and south through Liège and Namur, to the French frontier north of Sedan. As we have already noted, the failure to destroy an important bridge at Maastricht enabled the Germans to turn the Albert Canal line and to cut off Liège. Their advance across the Ardennes region and Luxemburg was rapid, and the whole line of the Meuse from Namur southward was almost immediately subjected to intensive attack.



The Battle of the Meuse .(2)—

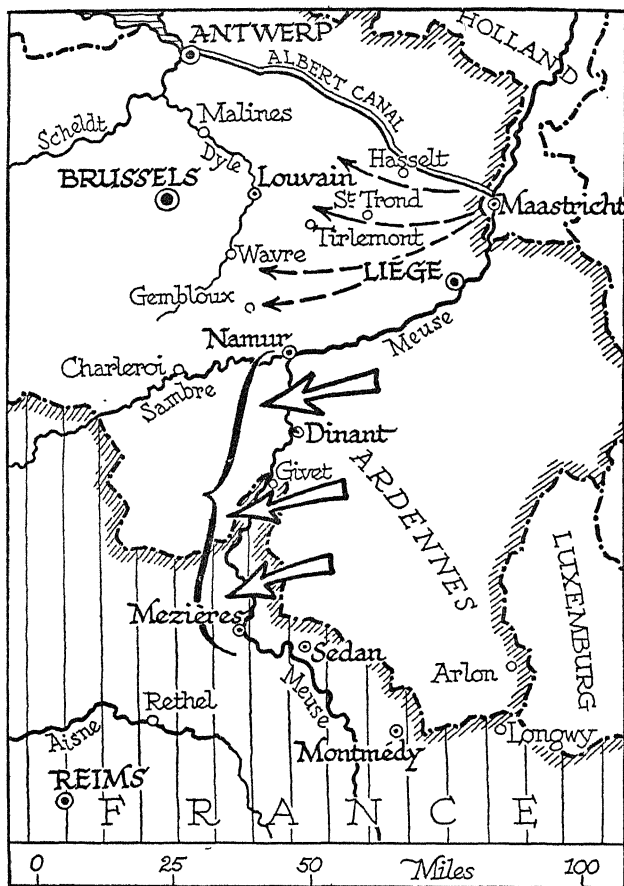
DURING the two or three days following the opening of the German offensive on 10th May, British and French forces were advancing rapidly into Belgium to link up with the Belgian army. By this time the Germans, using large numbers of tanks, had penetrated to within a few miles of Brussels, having forced the Belgians back from the entire triangle formed by the Albert Canal and the Meuse east of Namur. The Allied front accordingly extended from east of Antwerp, along the line of the Dyle River, through Louvain to Namur.



The Dutch Capitulation—

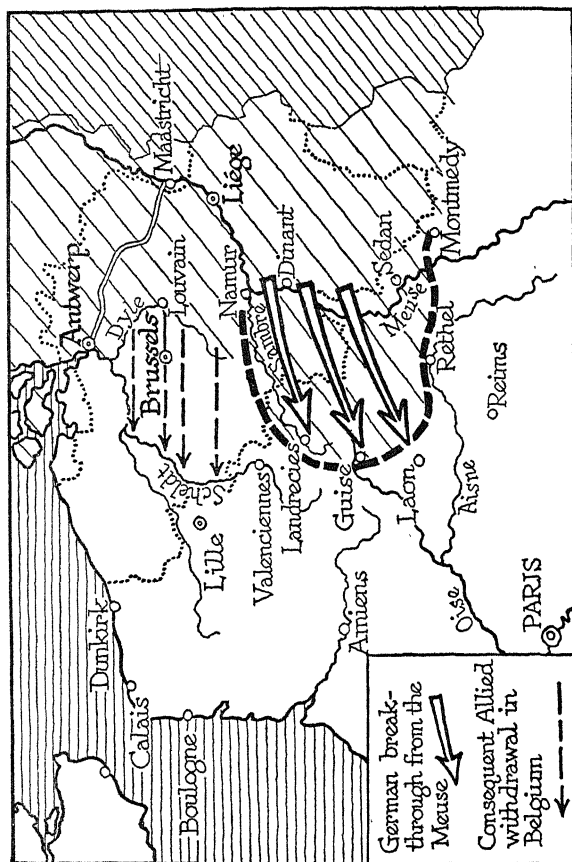
ON 14th May, four days after the beginning of the German invasion, the Dutch Commander-in-Chief issued a proclamation that fighting was to cease. The map shows the extent of the German advance in Holland and Belgium at this date. The main line of the attack in Holland had been through the central river region in the direction of Rotterdam, and the capture of the Moerdyk bridge had cut off communication between the northern and southern Dutch forces.

Fighting still continued in Zeeland and the islands of the delta, and some Dutch troops succeeded in crossing the frontier from this region into Belgium. Most of the Dutch fleet was able to reach British ports.



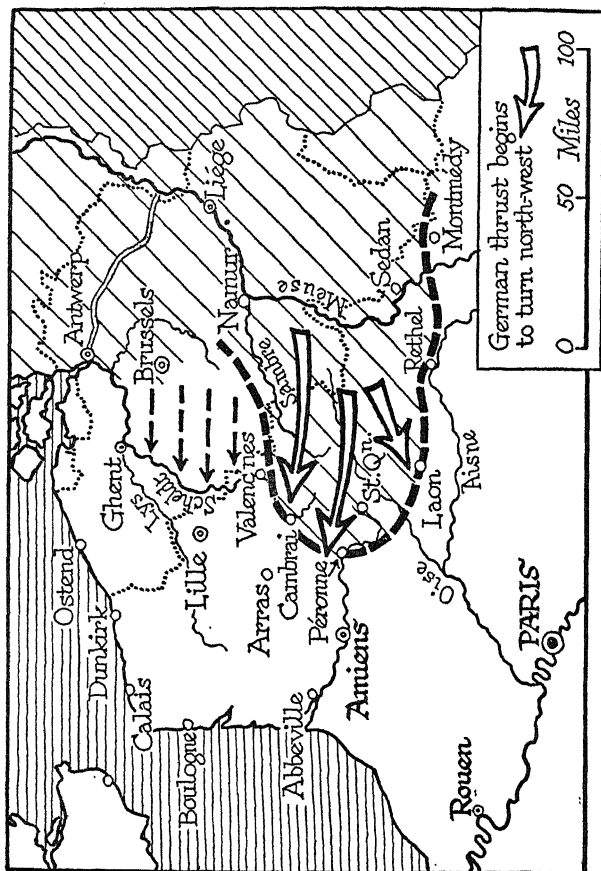
The Battle of the Meuse (3)—

WHILE the attack on Holland was being concluded and the German advance in northern Belgium was rapidly approaching Brussels, a series of furious assaults were being made on the line of the Meuse between Namur and Mézières. By 15th May the Germans had crossed the river at three points in this region. "A series of incredible mistakes," in the words of the French premier, M. Reynaud, had prevented the blowing up of the bridges, and the French defence line was pierced over a front of some 60 miles.



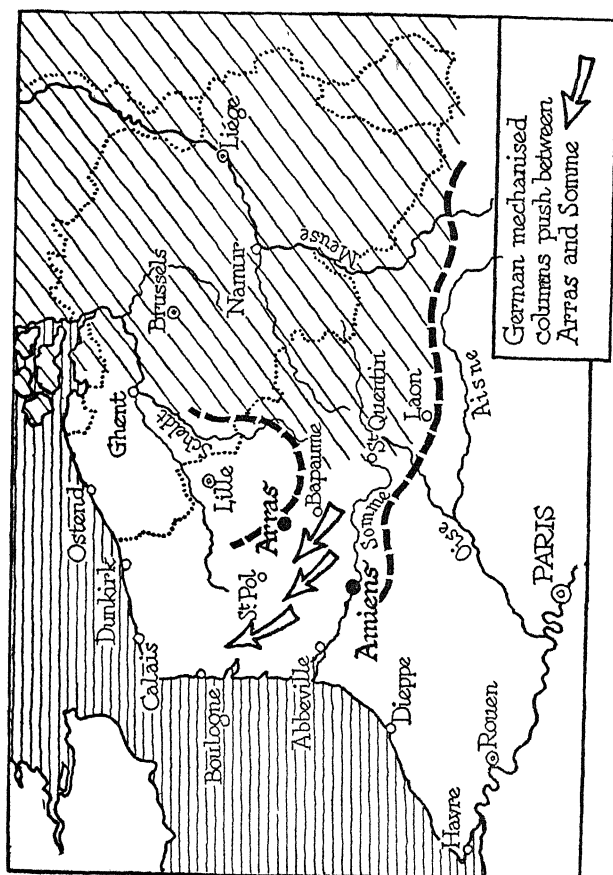
The Battle of “The Bulge” (I)—

THREE days after the Meuse line had been broken the German offensive had reached the region of Landrecies on the Sambre, and Guise on the Oise, and a great “bulge” had been made between the French on the Meuse and Aisne and the Allied forces in Belgium. This necessitated the withdrawal of the latter to the line of the Scheldt—Antwerp—Ghent—Valenciennes. The Belgian Government left Brussels for Ostend on 16th May, and the Germans entered the capital on the following day.



The Battle of “The Bulge” (2)—

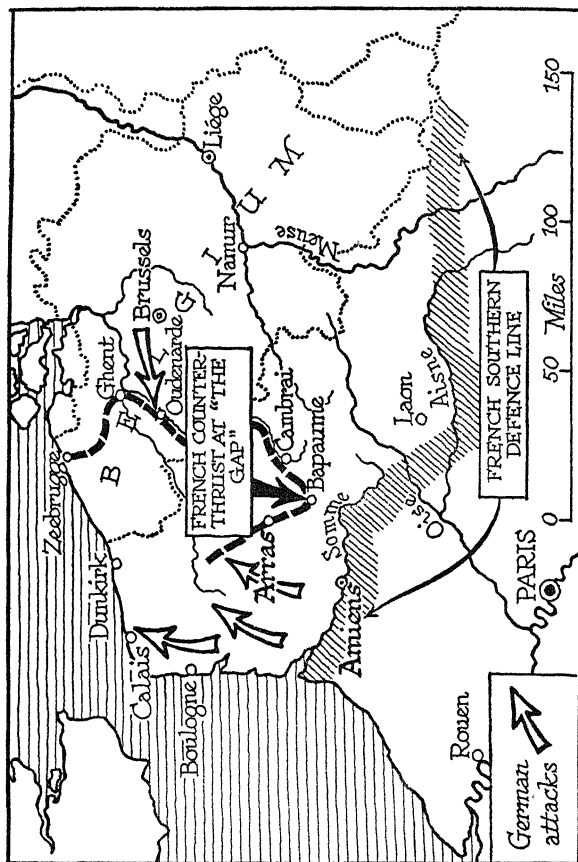
By 19th May the “bulge” in the Allied defence line had been extended still farther westward, and the Germans were pressing towards Cambrai, Péronne, and St. Quentin. On that day General Weygand took over the supreme command. German attempts to widen the bulge by striking with great force on the upper Aisne, in the region of Rethel, were held. But the advance westward continued, and now, instead of aiming south-west towards Paris, began to turn north-west in the direction of Arras and the coast. The line of the Sambre was crossed, and this advance threatened the rear of the Scheldt defence line, to which the Allied forces south of Ghent, including the B.E.F., had been withdrawn.



The Battle of “The Gap” (I)—

ON 20th to 21st May the Germans broke through the western end of the bulge, capturing Amiens, and so made a gap between the northern and southern Allied armies. At once German mechanized columns poured through this gap, striking directly north-westward towards Abbeville and Boulogne. This thrust cut across the communications of the northern armies now holding the Scheldt line from Ghent southward.

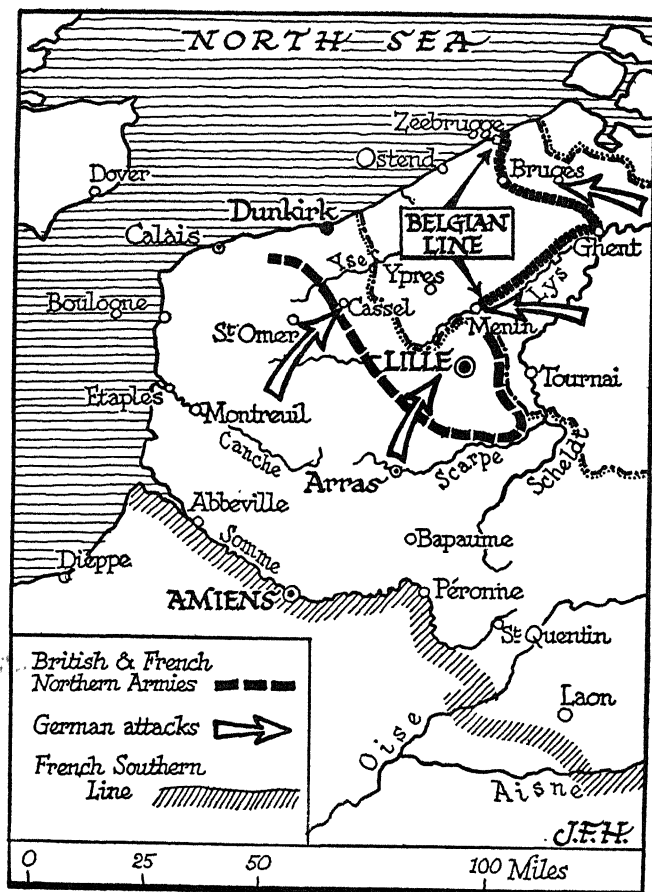
In front of Arras the B.E.F. attacked strongly for two days, but by the 23rd the Germans had worked round its western flank and it was almost surrounded. It accordingly withdrew eastward.



The Battle of “The Gap” (2)—

ON 23rd May Mr. Churchill announced in the House of Commons that German advanced units had already reached Boulogne. A southern French defence line was being consolidated along the line of the Somme and the Aisne, and all German attacks on this were being held.

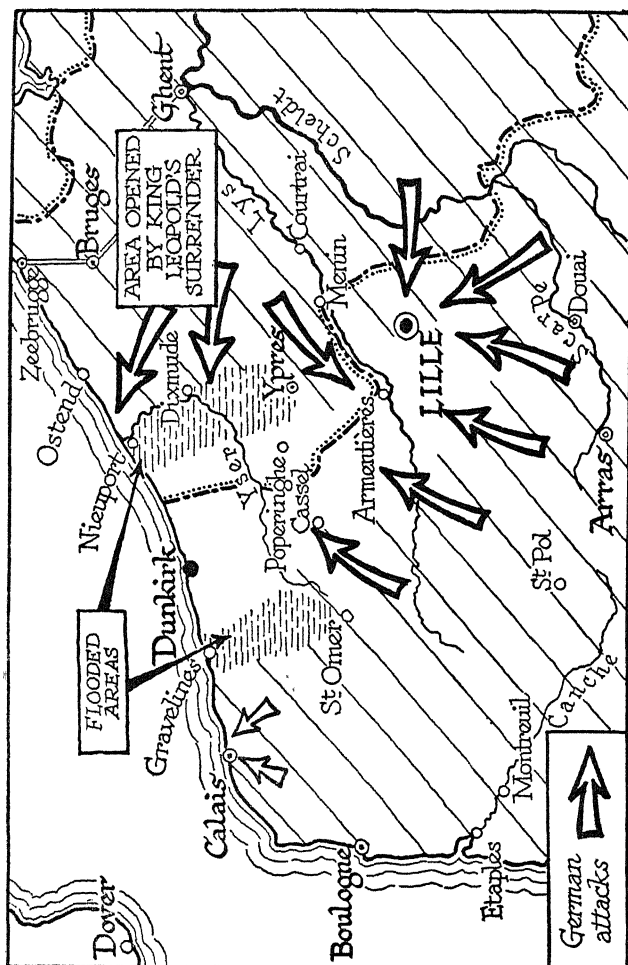
On 23rd–24th May French forces delivered an attack in the Cambrai-Bapaume area. But the expected French attack from the Somme northward did not materialize, and though the width of the gap had been reduced to some 12 miles it remained unclosed. Meantime, the continued German pressure on both flanks of the northern armies compelled a withdrawal.



The King of the Belgians Surrenders—

THE Allied armies in the north had now been driven back to the western corner of Belgium and a small strip of French territory between Dunkirk and Lille. The Belgians had been pushed back from the line of the Lys, west of Ghent, towards Bruges, and part of the British forces had to go to their assistance.

Early in the morning of 28th May the King of the Belgians, acting against the advice of his ministers, surrendered to the Germans. The Belgian Army had suffered terrible casualties, but the King's sudden capitulation precipitated a situation of the greatest peril for the B.E.F. and the French forces in the Lille region. It appeared inevitable that both must be cut off in their retreat to the coast, and the British Prime Minister, Mr. Winston Churchill, warned the nation to expect "hard and heavy tidings."

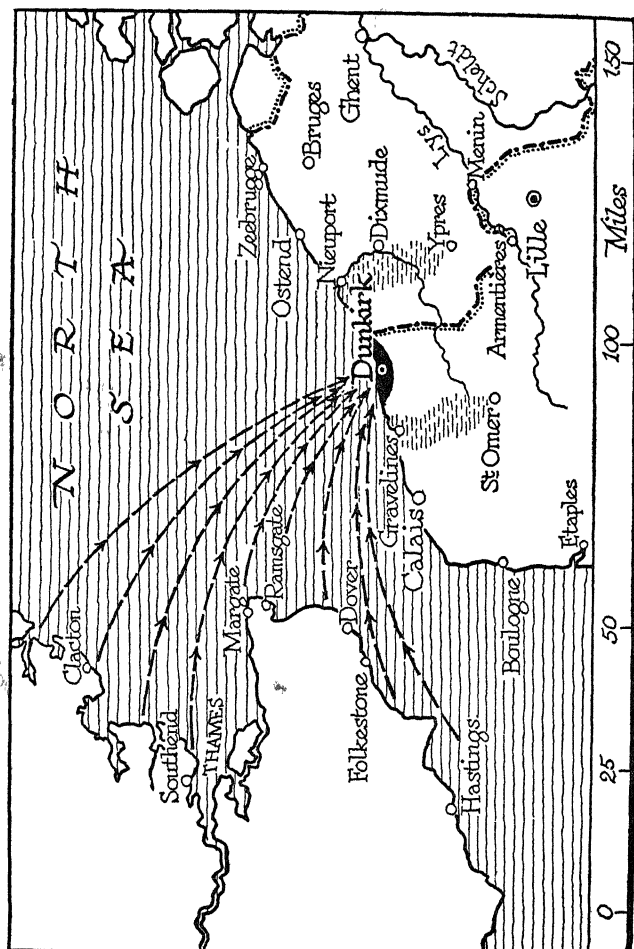


The Retreat to the Coast—

THE retreat of the Allied armies to Dunkirk, the one port open to them, was carried out in the teeth of bitter German attacks on all sides. The Germans exultantly announced that these northern armies were completely surrounded, and their retreat cut off.

The zone left open by the surrender of King Leopold was in part protected by a flooded area extending from Nieuport along the river Yser and south to Ypres. Another flooded belt gave some protection on the western side, between Gravelines and St. Omer, against the German attacks from the direction of Calais. On every section of the front east and west the Germans delivered furious onslaughts. The way in which the retreating armies fought their rearguard actions won the praise of the German Command itself.

Calais itself held out almost to the last ; 3,000 British and 1,000 French kept the invaders at bay for four days. Thirty unwounded survivors were brought off by the Navy.

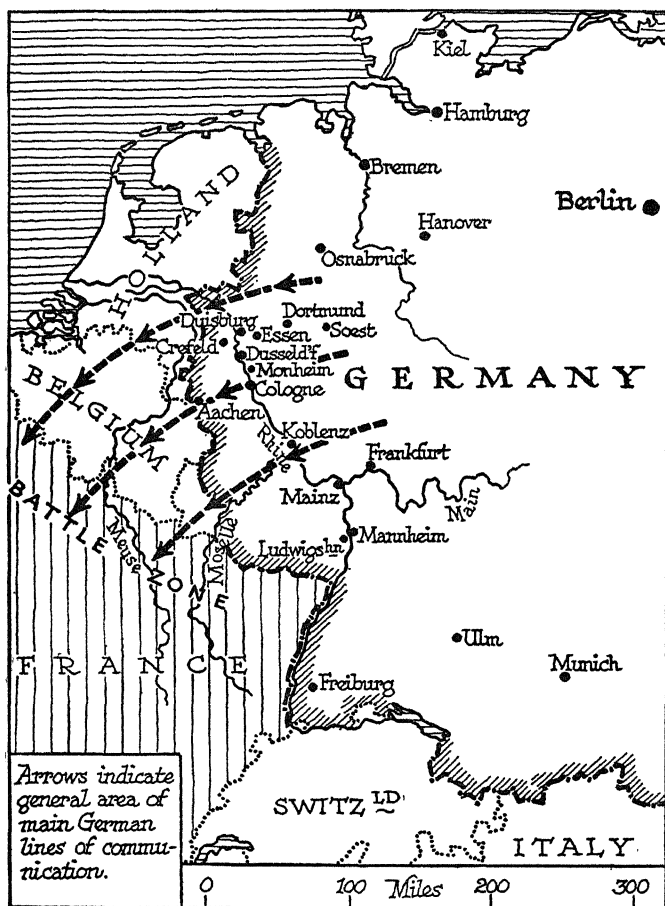


Dunkirk—

THE German attempt to cut off the B.E.F. and the French forces in Flanders failed, though much of the Allied stores and equipment had to be abandoned. The greater part of the armies was embarked safely, thanks to the magnificent work of the Navy and the fighters of the R.A.F. and the Fleet Air Arm. The whole Dunkirk area had become a fortified and entrenched zone, and embarkation from the beaches went on continuously for five days, when at last the Germans took possession of an empty town.

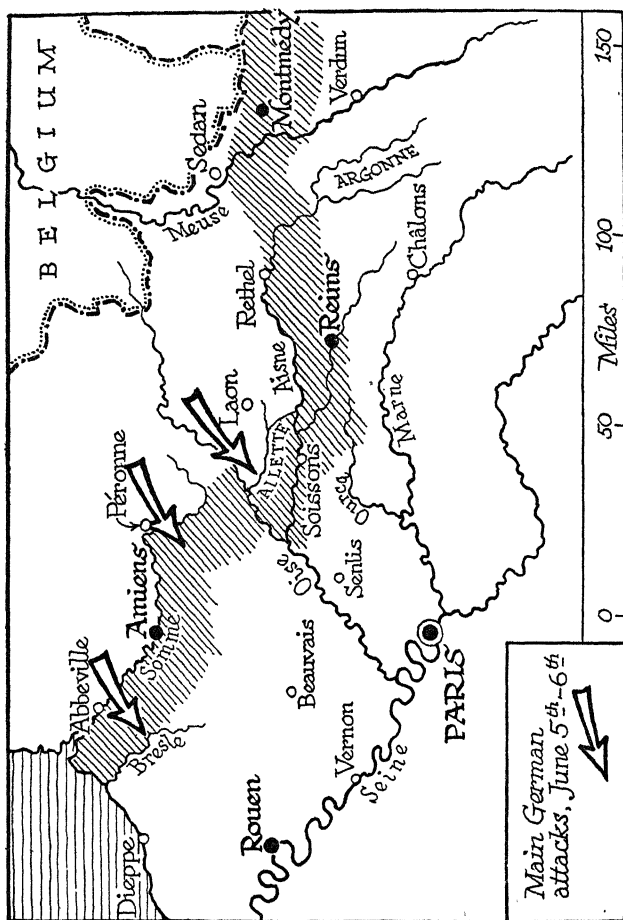
In the operations more than 200 British naval vessels were employed, and these were aided by over 600 small craft of every kind, from all the ports of south-eastern England, manned by volunteers.

During the final stages of the retreat the war in the air over the Flanders battlefield had been particularly intense. In the eight days the R.A.F. alone destroyed 350 enemy aircraft, and it was estimated that during the fighting in Belgium and northern France the Germans had lost four machines for every one of the Allies'.



Bombing German Bases—

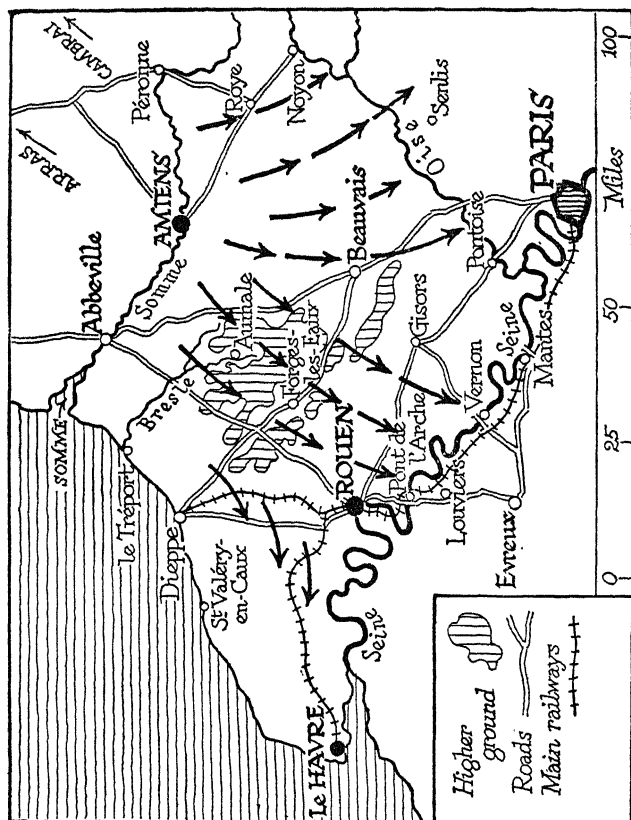
THROUGHOUT the whole course of the campaign in Belgium and northern France R.A.F. bombers had made continuous raids on all the principal German bases in the Rhineland, and on the whole area of the German lines of communication between the Rhine and the battle zone in France. Aeroplane and munition works, petrol stores and refineries, railway lines and junctions were persistently attacked. The important military-industrial centres of the northern Rhineland and the Ruhr were raided again and again, and attacks were also carried out on points as distant from the actual fighting zone as Ulm, Munich, and the outskirts of Berlin itself.



The Battle of France (I)—

ON the day of the announcement by the British War Office that the evacuation of Dunkirk had been successfully completed the Germans launched their expected offensive against the French defence zone—the “Weygand Line”—along the Somme and the Aisne. This front extended from the sea near Abbeville to the region of Montmédy, where the Maginot Line began.

The main attacks, of massed tanks followed by infantry, were during the first two days chiefly directed at the western half of the line—on the Somme between Abbeville and Amiens, where the Germans succeeded in breaking through as far as the Bresle River ; in the region of Péronne ; and against the Ailette River and canal in the angle of the Oise and the Aisne.

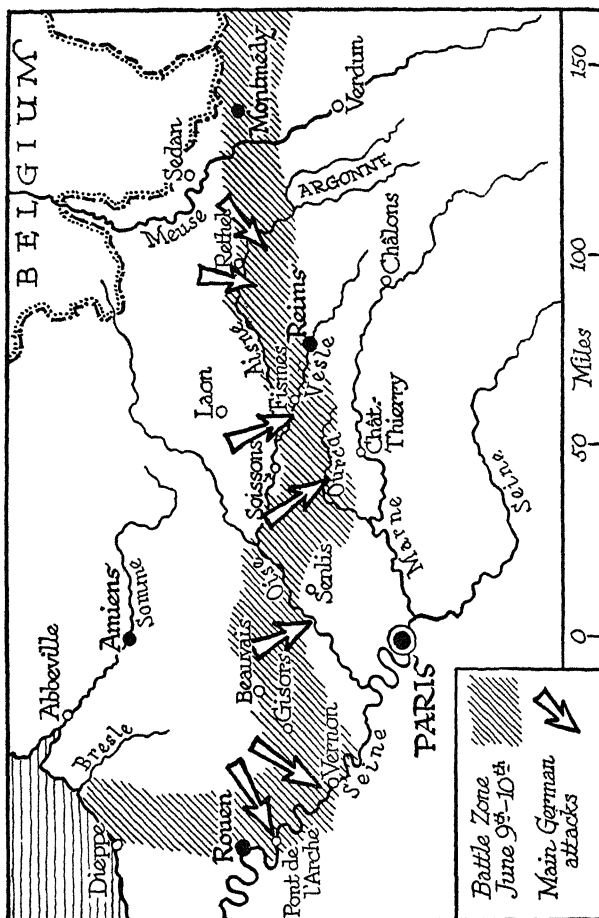


The Battle of France (2)—

THE map shows the western part of the battle zone during the days preceding the fall of Paris. After forcing the line of the Somme on its whole length the Germans advanced through Aumale towards Forges-les-Eaux, on the Dieppe-Paris road. A French semi-official commentator on 8th June described the thrust between the Bresle and the Oise as "the most formidable attack in military history," estimating that close on 4,000 tanks and half a million men took part in the assault along the 90-mile front.

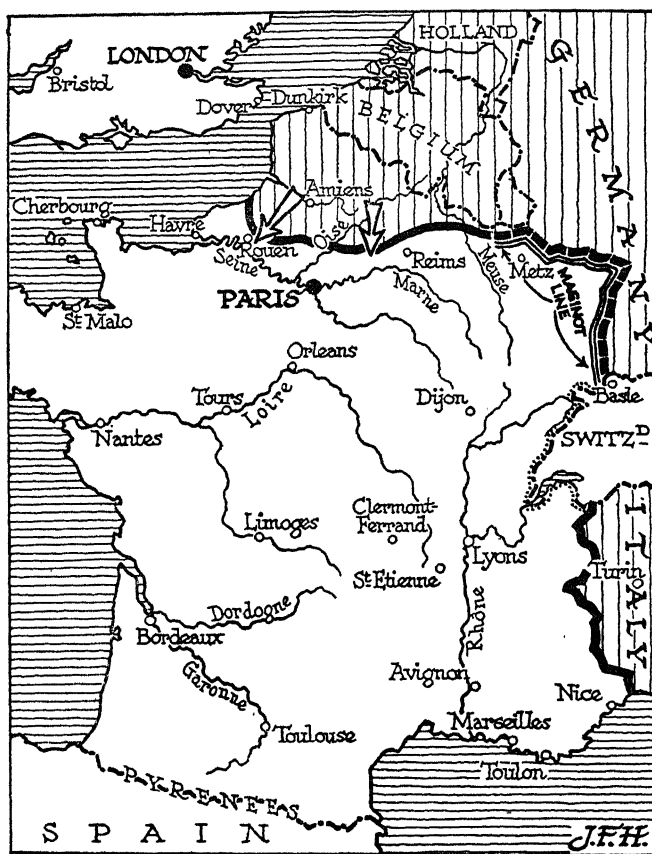
A British force, fighting near to the coast, was cut off at St. Valéry-en-Caux, west of Dieppe.

By 10th June German advanced units had reached the Seine between Amiens and Vernon, thus cutting the line of supply from Le Havre; and despite the desperate French resistance they succeeded in establishing bridge-heads on the south bank of the river. Meantime, immediately north of Paris, they had reached the Oise just above Pontoise, less than 20 miles from the capital, and had crossed the river in the region of Senlis.



The Battle of France (3)—

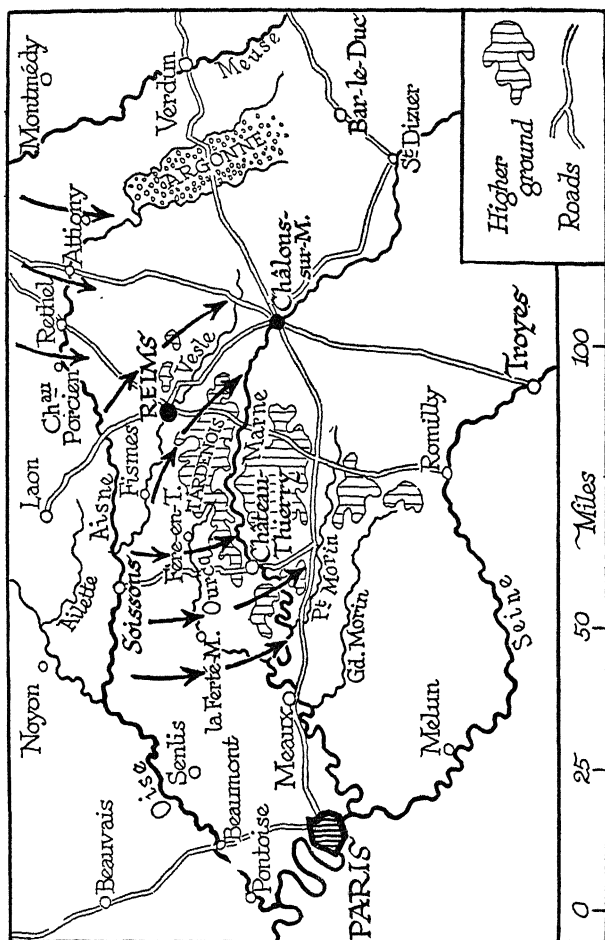
As the battle developed, massed assaults were made on the centre and right of the Weygand Line. East and west of Soissons, the Germans crossed the Aisne and advanced to the Ourcq, a small tributary of the Marne. They were also attacking near Fismes, on the Vesle River west of Reims. Farther east the offensive was renewed on either side of Rethel on the upper Aisne.



Italy declares War—

ON 10th June, while the battle along the whole line west and east of Paris was at its height, Mussolini decided that "the hour marked out by destiny" had struck, and Italy declared war upon France and Britain. The map shows the battle-line at this date in relation to the whole of France and the Franco-Italian frontier in the south-east.

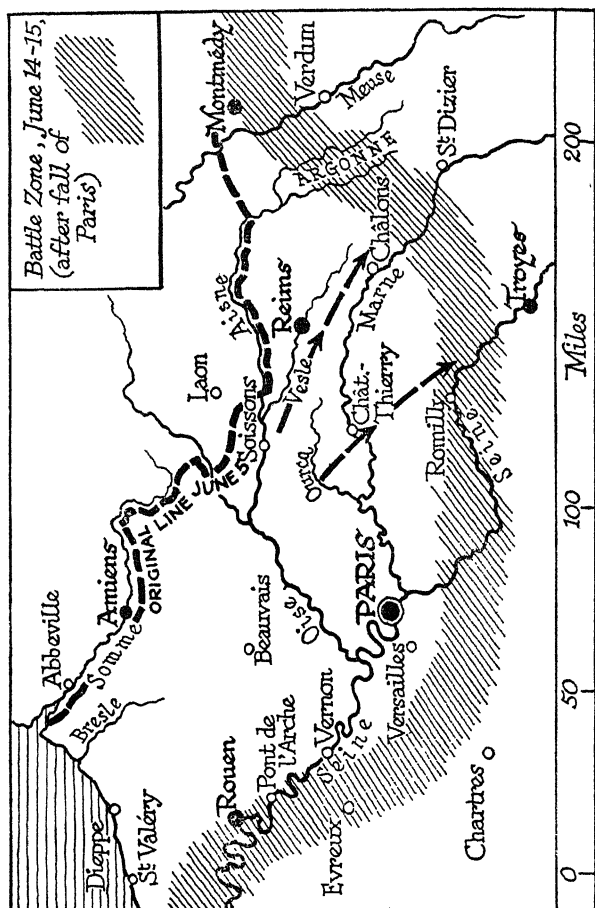
Broadcasting that evening from Paris, M. Reynaud, the French Premier, said: "We are in the sixth day of the greatest battle in history. . . . Signor Mussolini has decided that blood must flow. What was the pretext for this declaration of war? Asked this question by our Ambassador this afternoon, Count Ciano replied that Signor Mussolini was carrying out the engagements which he had made with Hitler." That same evening President Roosevelt declared: "The hand that held the dagger has struck it into the back of its neighbour."



The Battle of France (4)—

THIS map illustrates in greater detail the fighting in the eastern half of the battle zone, between the Oise and the Meuse.

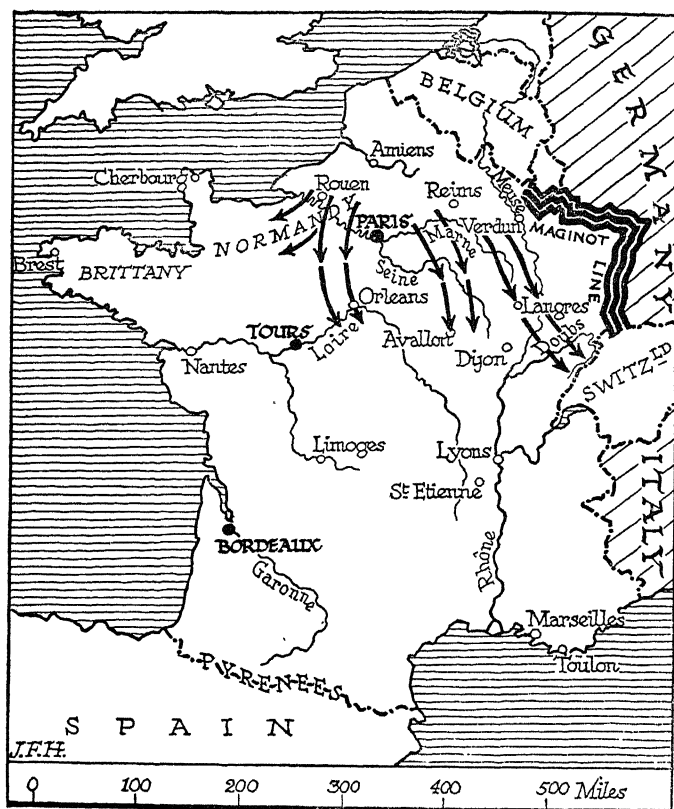
In face of the German attack in the Ourcq-Tardenois region the French withdrew (11th June) to the south bank of the Marne. On that day the French *communiqué* declared that the battle had reached its greatest violence along the entire front. By the following day the Germans had crossed the Marne at Château-Thierry. Farther east the German advance along the Vesle valley, on either side of Reims, was continued; and Châlons-sur-Marne was reached by 13th June.



The Battle of France (5)—

ON 13th June General Weygand declared Paris an open town. The French would defend it to the northern outskirts, and would then retire to the south to avoid fighting inside the city. On 14th June this withdrawal was carried out, and the Germans entered the capital early on the morning of 15th June.

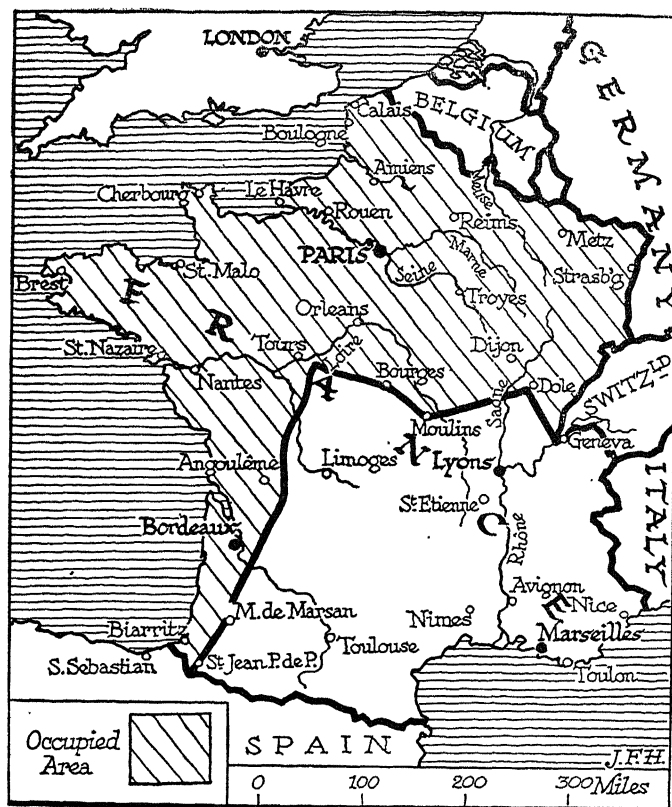
The French armies in the west had now been pushed back across the Seine, and fighting was going on in the region of Evreux. East of the capital the German forces which had crossed the Marne in the region of Château-Thierry had now reached Romilly on the upper Seine, and were pushing towards Troyes. The attack from the Reims sector had passed Châlons-sur-Marne and was nearing St. Dizier. Between the Marne and the Meuse the Germans were moving through the Argonne, and on 15th June they claimed the capture of Verdun.



Marshal Pétain asks for an Armistice—

ON 17th June Marshal Pétain became head of the French Government (at Bordeaux). He refused the British Government's offer of a Union between the two countries, Britain and France, and instead asked Hitler for an armistice. At the time when this decision was made the Germans were still advancing in each of the four main sectors of the battle. In Normandy they were pressing on towards Cherbourg and the Channel coast. South of Paris they had crossed the Loire at Orleans. East of the capital the advance from the Marne had reached Avallon; while between the Marne and the Meuse advanced units had pressed on through Langres and across the Doubs River almost to the Swiss frontier.

This last advance had cut right across the rear communications of the Maginot Line. There had been attacks on the line itself in the Saar area and near Neu Brisach in Alsace, and the French had retired from certain sectors after demolishing the fortifications.



Hitler's Armistice Terms—

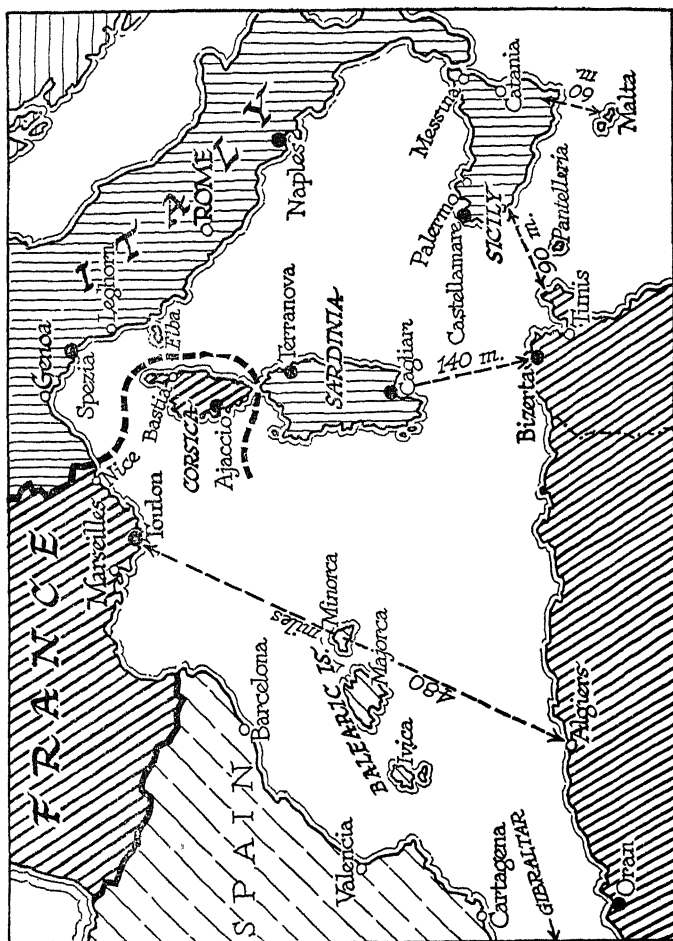
HOSTILITIES between France and Germany and Italy ceased at 12.35 a.m. on 25th June. The terms of the armistice dictated by Germany had been accepted by the French Government three days earlier, but were not to come into force until six hours after the armistice between France and Italy had also been signed. The French people were not informed by their Government of the terms of the surrender until after the armies had laid down their arms.

By the armistice the western and northern French coast, and all French territory north of a line drawn from Tours—through Bourges—Moulins—Dôle—to Geneva, were placed under German occupation. All French armed forces were to be demobilized and disarmed except for a small force permitted to remain in being in the unoccupied southern area. All artillery, tanks, munitions, and aircraft, and all fortifications and naval yards were to be handed over intact. The French fleet was also to be recalled to French waters, and there disarmed and interned under German and Italian control.

The War in the Mediterranean—

THE entrance of Italy into the war brought the whole Mediterranean area into the sphere of conflict, and the United States promptly announced that the Mediterranean was henceforth closed to American shipping.

Italy's central position in the sea gives her the advantage of a considerable measure of control over the central channel between Sicily and Tunis ; and this is of course increased by her possession of the Libyan shore on the African side. But her situation entirely within an inland sea, the entrances to which are not in her control, lays her peculiarly open to blockade. Her publicists have always declared that she " must either dominate, or be a prisoner in, the Mediterranean." But, as President Roosevelt stressed in his broadcast on 10th June, she had consistently refused to define her demands in any precise terms.

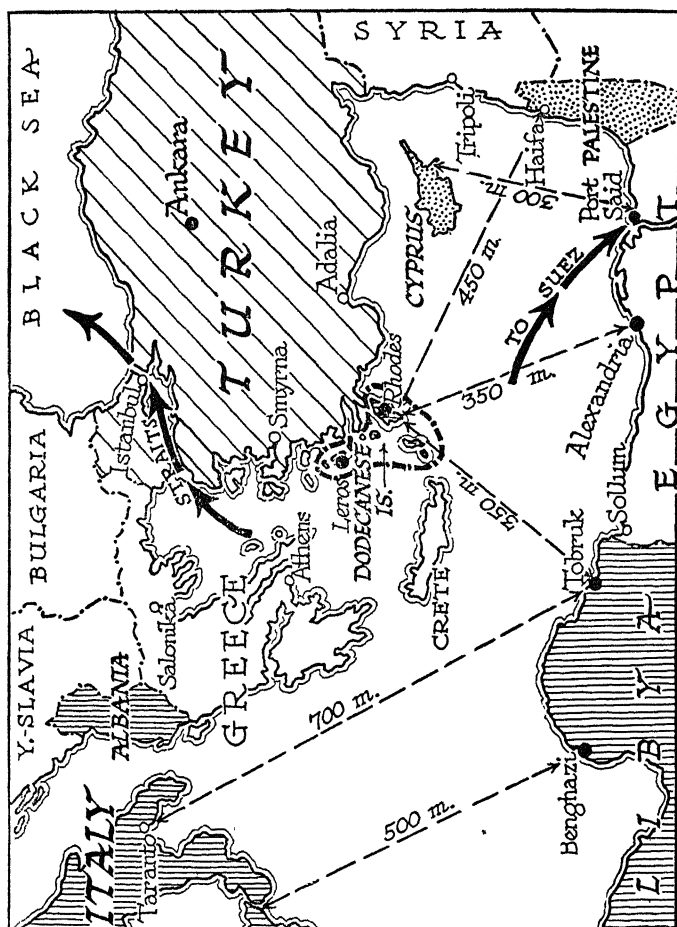


France and Italy in the Western Mediterranean—

APART from the British hold on the Straits of Gibraltar, the coasts and islands of the western basin of the Mediterranean are divided between France, Spain, and Italy. Except for the small strip of Spanish Morocco, opposite Gibraltar, the southern (African) shore was entirely in French hands. But France's lines of communication with the western part of this area were commanded by the Balearic Islands in which, during the Spanish Civil War, Mussolini had succeeded in gaining some measure of control. This was a direct threat to French security, which had been based for a century or more on Spanish neutrality.

The pivots of the French defence system were the naval bases of Toulon and Bizerta (Tunis). Oran (Algeria) and Ajaccio (Corsica) were supporting bases. Italy's main naval harbours in the western Mediterranean are at Spezia, Naples, Terranova, and Cagliari (in Sardinia) and Castellamare (Sicily). The island of Pantelleria lies midway in the channel between Sicily and Tunis.

Immediately after the declaration of war the Italians launched a series of air-raids on the British base at Malta.

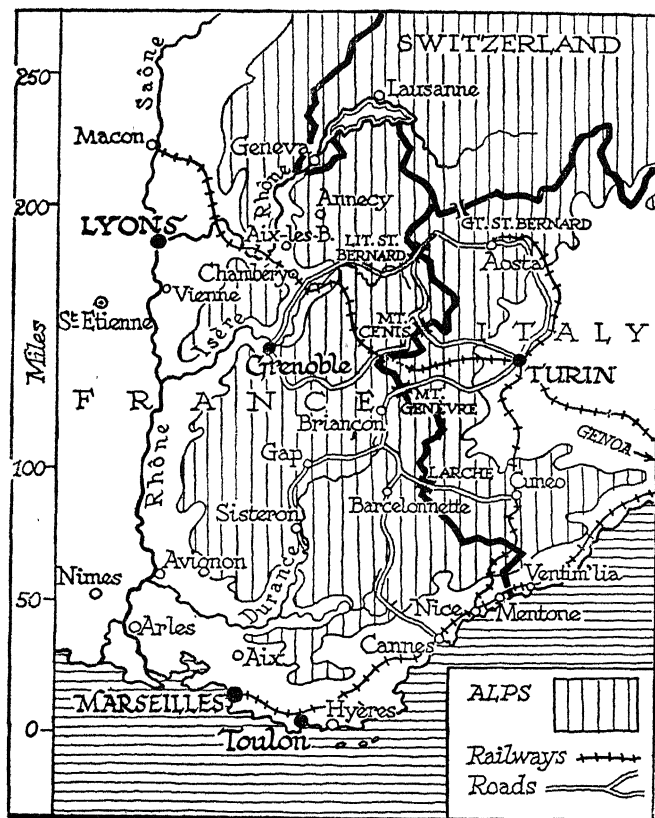


Britain and Italy in the Eastern Mediterranean—

THE two gateways of the eastern Mediterranean are the Straits leading to the Black Sea controlled by Turkey ; and the Suez Canal.

Italy's bases in the eastern half of the sea are at Rhodes and Leros, in the Dodecanese Islands, and at Benghazi and Tobruk on the Libyan coast. Britain holds Cyprus, and the harbour of Haifa in Palestine ; while by the 1936 treaty with Egypt the British fleet has access to the harbours of Alexandria and Port Said, and Britain's special interest in the defence of the Suez Canal zone is recognized.

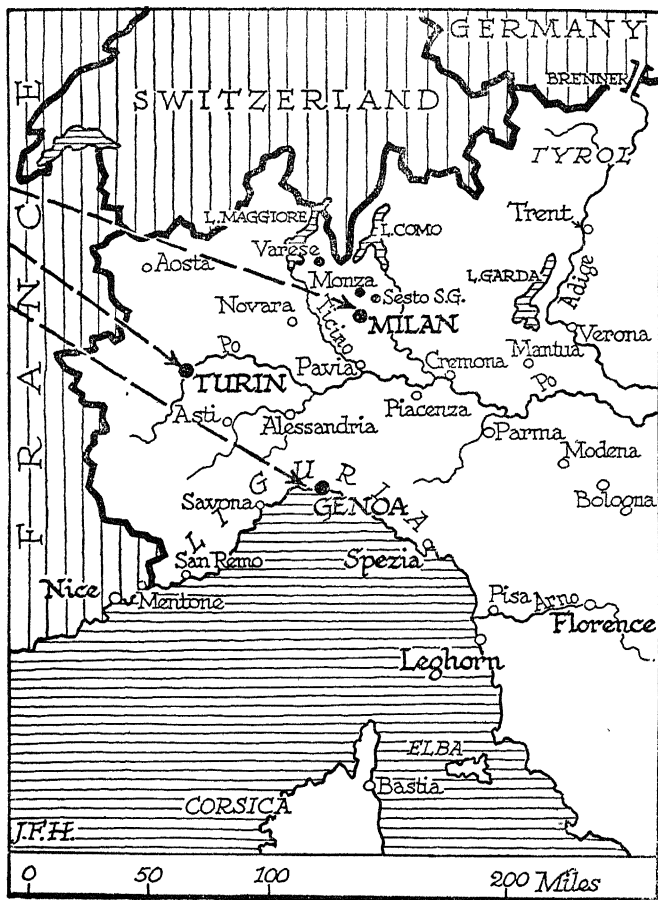
Large British and French military forces were stationed in Syria and Palestine, including troops from Australia and New Zealand. General Mittelhauser, chief of the French forces in Syria, announced the cessation of hostilities in Syria on 28th June.



The French-Italian Frontier—

THE frontier between France and Italy runs from Lake Geneva to the Mediterranean along the watershed of the western Alps. The slope on the Italian side is much more rapid. Within France considerable mountain areas—High Savoy, Dauphiné, and Provence—lie between the frontier and the industrial towns of the Rhône valley. During the week before the French appeal for an armistice the Italians made no move of any importance in the Alpine passes. A day or two before hostilities actually ceased they advanced along the coast road and occupied Mentone, just inside the French frontier.

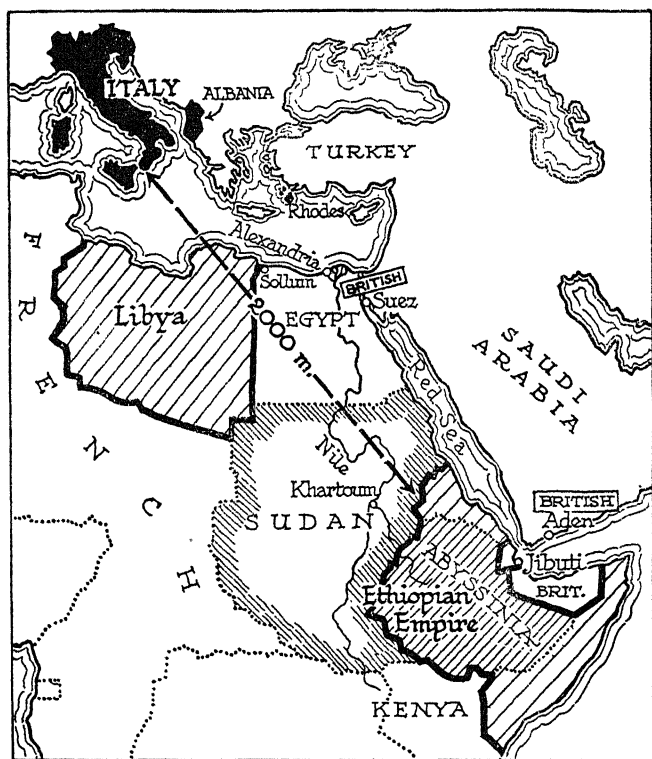
By the armistice terms a demilitarized zone fifty kilometres (30 miles) wide was established along the whole length of the frontier on the French side.



British Air-raids on Italy—

WITHIN 24 hours of Italy's entry into the war the R.A.F. carried out successful bombing raids on two of the most important Italian aircraft and aero engine factories—the Ansaldo works at Genoa and the Fiat factory at Turin. Other factories attacked, then and later, were the Breda works at Sesto San Giovanni, the Caproni aircraft works outside Milan, and industrial centres at Monza and Varese.

Before the Bordeaux Government's surrender French warships had bombarded the Ligurian coast.

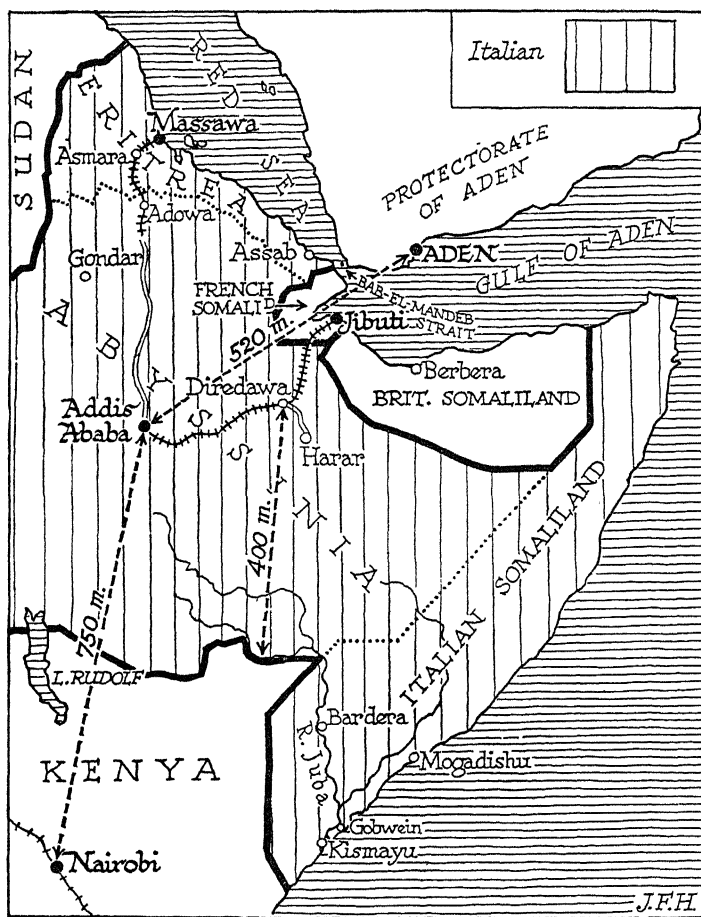


Italy's African Empire—

WHEREAS Italy's communications with Libya are relatively short and direct, the line of supply to her Ethiopian Empire lies through Suez and the Red Sea, and is cut by the British hold on the Canal Zone. Air communications would have to cross the Sudan.

Frontier operations on the Egyptian-Libyan border began soon after war was declared, and British naval and air raids were carried out on Libyan ports and bases. Sollum, on the Egyptian side, was attacked by Italian troops. The death of Marshal Balbo, the Governor of Libya, "during an air battle near Tobruk" (see map 91) was announced in Rome on 29th June; but the British Air Command announced later that no machines of the R.A.F. had been engaged on that date.

Less than three weeks after the opening of the war with Italy the British Admiralty announced that naval forces in the Mediterranean and east of Suez had destroyed a total of nine Italian submarines.



Air War in Italian East Africa—

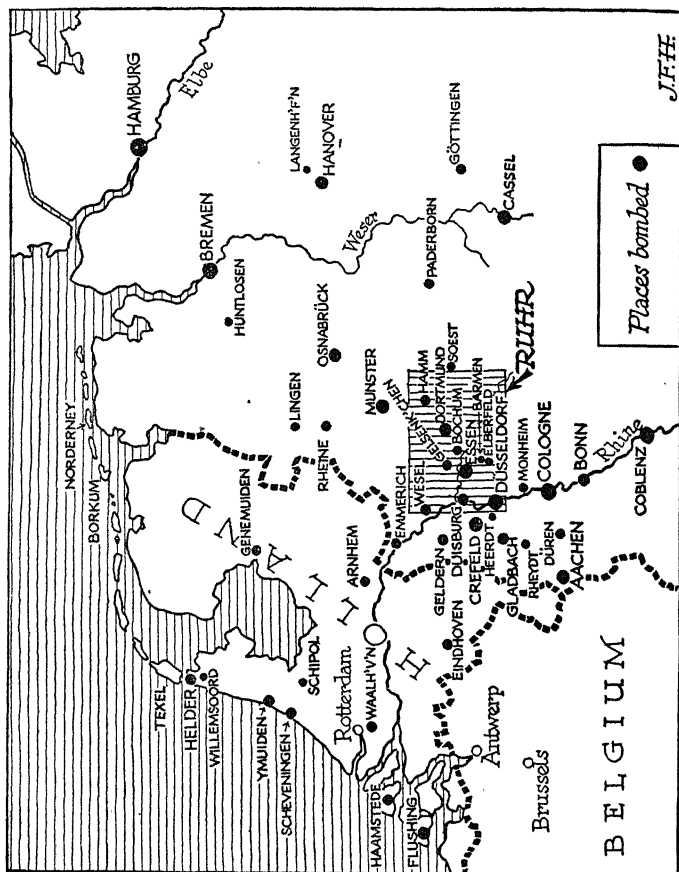
Air attacks on Italian bases in Abyssinia, Eritrea, and Somaliland were begun immediately on Italy's entry into the war. Asmara, Assab, and Massawa (in Eritrea), Diredawa (on the Jibuti railway), Bardera and Kismayu (in Somaliland), and other places were attacked. The raids from the south were made by the South African and Rhodesian Air Forces, operating from Kenya.



Italy's Armistice with France—

By the terms of the Italian French armistice the four naval bases of Toulon, Ajaccio, Oran, and Bizerta were to be demilitarized until the cessation of hostilities against the British Empire. A demilitarized zone, 30 miles wide, was to be established along the Franco-Italian frontier from Switzerland to the sea ; the Italian troops remained in possession of such territory as they had gained during the days of the French collapse. The French defences on the frontier between Tunis and Libya (the Mareth Line) were to be dismantled, and a broad demilitarized zone set up farther south, between Algeria and Libya.

In Abyssinia Italy was to have full rights to use the port of Jibuti and the Jibuti-Addis Ababa railway (see map 95).

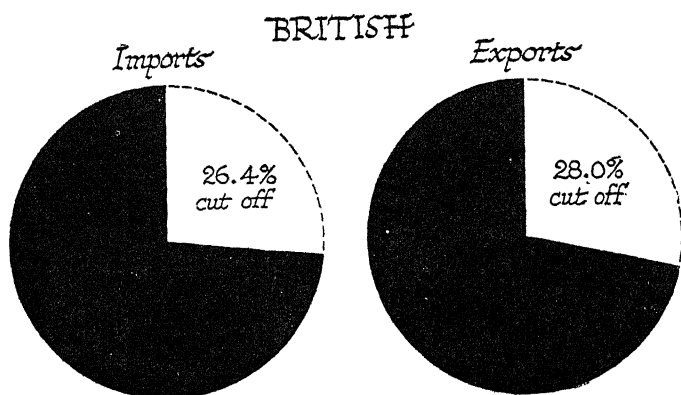


Air War on Germany—

DURING the latter part of June and the first weeks of July, after fighting had ceased in France, the R.A.F. concentrated on intensive and large-scale bombing of every kind of military objective in north-western Germany, and on German-occupied bases in Holland.

The factories and munition works of the Ruhr and the Rhineland were consistently attacked, as were railways, yards, depots, and junctions in the whole area between Coblenz and Hamburg. Oil tanks and refineries at Hamburg, Bremen, Hanover, Dortmund, Cologne, and other towns, and aerodromes at these and many other places, including the islands of Borkum and Norderney, were also raided.

In Holland, there were attacks on the seaplane bases at Texel and Helder, on the aerodromes at Willemsoord, Schipol, Arnhem, Flushing, and Waalhaven, and on military stores at Ymuiden and Scheveningen.



British Foreign Trade—

THE diagram shows the increased amount of British foreign trade cut off as a result of Germany's Continental conquests. For comparison, see diagram 39 (Vol. I.), in which the percentages at the outbreak of war were—Imports, 6 per cent., and Exports, 8 per cent. The next two diagrams show the relative importance of the lost sources of supply in Great Britain's total imports of various commodities. The parts shaded black show the amounts bought from countries still accessible to her.

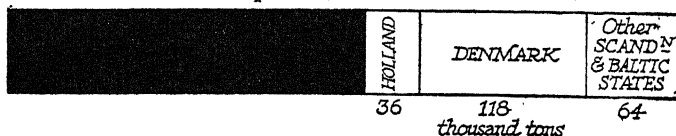
IRON ORE		million tons	thousand tons		IRON & STEEL MANU- FACTURES
	TUNIS	1.3	257	FRANCE	
			273	BELGIUM	
	ALGERIA	1.3	89	SWEDEN	
	FRANCE	0.3	34	NORWAY	
	SWEDEN	1.3			
Total Imports 1938: 5.1 million tons	NORWAY	0.6			Total Imports 1938: 1341 thousand tons

PAPER MAKING MATER- IALS		million tons	million tons		PAPER & CARD- BOARD
	TUNIS	0.1		HOLLAND	
	ALGERIA	0.2	0.2		
	SWEDEN	0.6	0.2	SWEDEN	
	NORWAY	0.3	0.1	NORWAY	
	FINLAND	0.6	0.2	FRANCE	
Total Imports 1938: 2 million tons					Total Imports 1938: 1.1 million tons

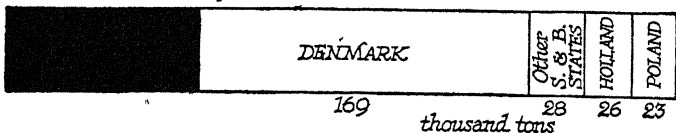
British Economic Losses (I)—

THE loss of Continental and North African sources of iron ore is the most serious economic setback to Great Britain resulting from Germany's conquest of Europe. The diagram shows in black the very small proportion of both iron ore and paper-making materials which she was accustomed to buy from non-European countries.

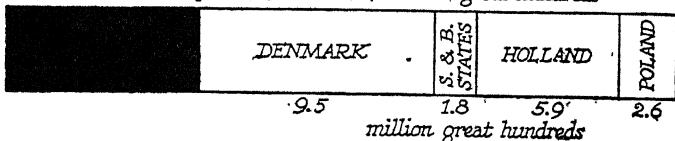
BUTTER - Total Imports, 1938: 476 thousand tons



BACON - Total Imports, 1938: 343 thousand tons

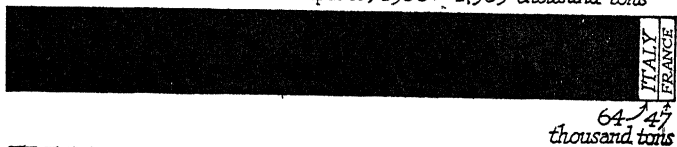


EGGS - Total Imports, 1938: 27.7 million great hundreds



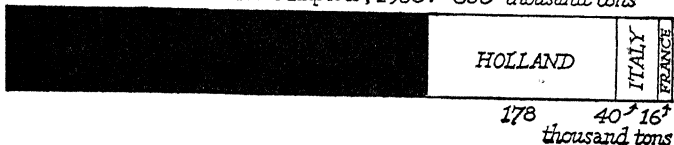
FRESH, PRESERVED and TINNED FRUIT

Total Imports, 1938: 1,969 thousand tons



FRESH, PRESERVED and TINNED VEGETABLES

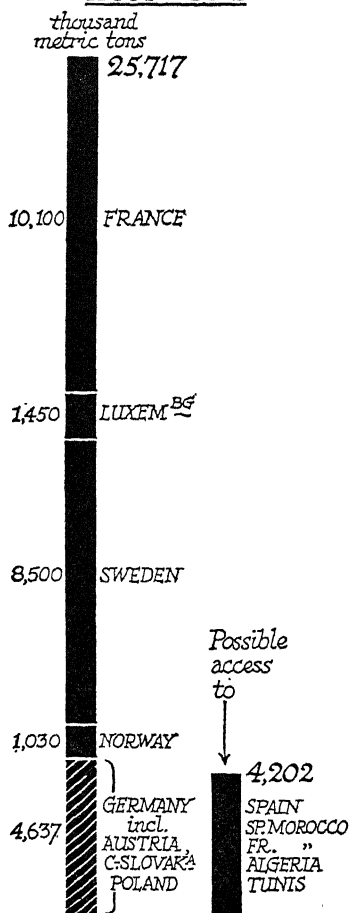
Total Imports, 1938: 653 thousand tons



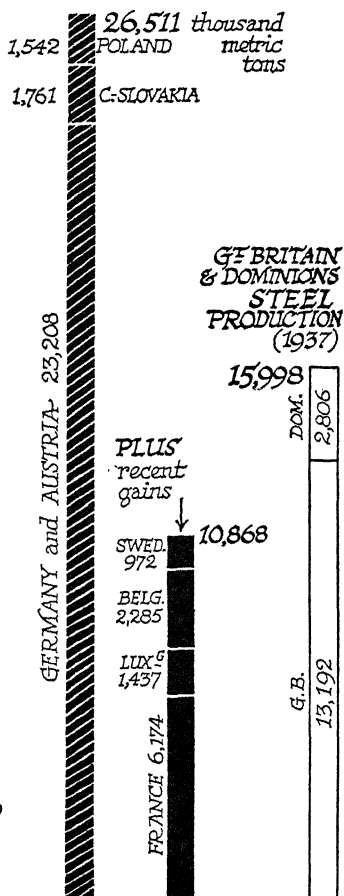
British Economic Losses (2)—

ROUGHLY half of Britain's normal butter imports come from countries now lost to her as sources of supply, and nearly three-quarters of her bacon and eggs. But Britain's losses do not, in this case, mean Germany's gains, for Danish and Dutch agriculturc is entirely dependent on imported feeding-stuffs which are now cut off by the British blockade. When their stocks of feeding-stuffs are exhausted, Denmark and Holland will cease to be of any value to Germany as suppliers of food and will become a liability. Nor will she acquire any fresh sources from her other conquests, for Continental Europe as a whole is normally barely self-sufficient in foods ; and this year the harvests must have suffered from the exceptionally hard winter, from war ravages, and from the calling-up of farm workers for military service.

PRODUCTION OF IRON ORE

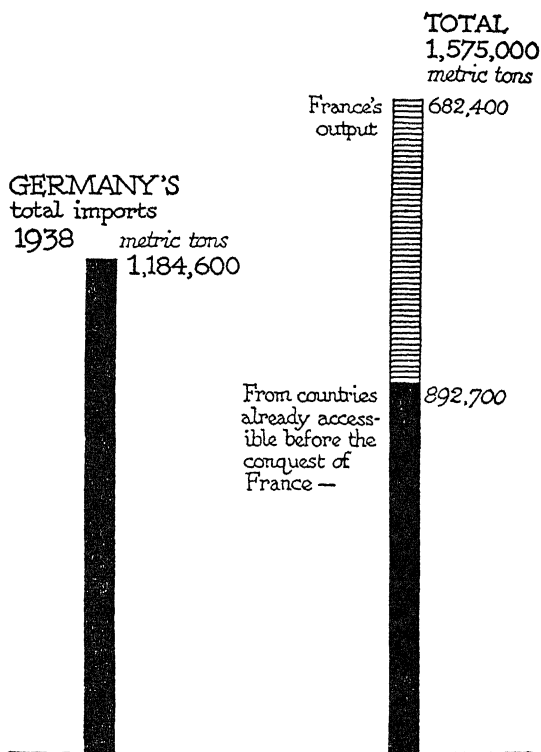


PRODUCTION OF CRUDE STEEL



Germany's Steel Supplies—

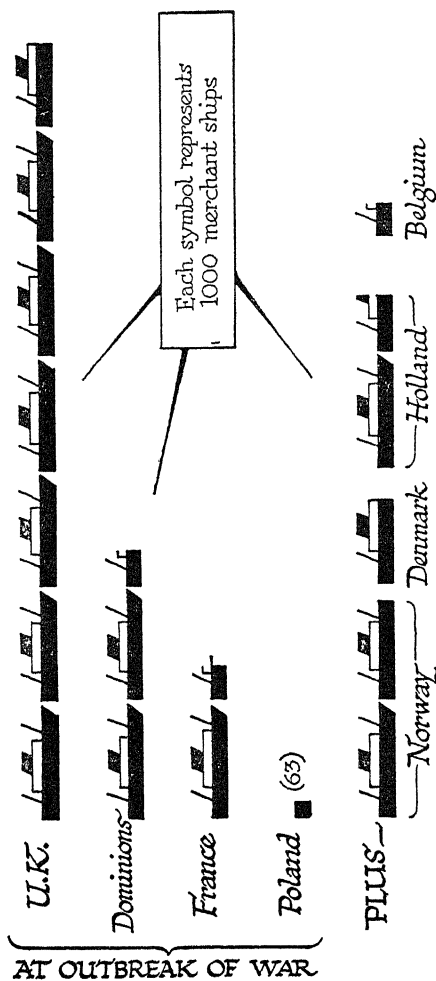
At the beginning of the war, Germany was cut off from a large part of her supplies of iron ore and had to share Sweden and Norway's output with the Allies. By her conquest of Norway and Denmark she secured a monopoly of Scandinavian iron ore, and by her occupation of the Low Countries and France she is in possession of all the iron ore she needs. But though Germany and the countries she controls have a steel-making capacity which is more than twice the British Empire's, she is still deficient in alloys, such as tungsten and chrome, which are used in modern steel-making for hardening purposes. Britain not only has access to these alloys, but, if she has difficulty in maintaining her steel output now that she has lost her chief sources of iron ore, can also import the finished metal from the United States, whose steel-making capacity is greater than that of the British Empire and Europe together.



Germany's Bauxite Supplies—

BAUXITE is the raw material of aluminium, which is very important in wartime, as it is used a great deal in the manufacture of aeroplanes. Germany has also used it largely as a substitute for copper, her supplies of which from accessible countries are still short (see diagram 41 of Vol. I.), in spite of the fact that she now has access to Spain's output, which amounts to some 30,000 tons a year. Her bauxite gains in France, therefore, are important to her, as she will now be able to produce all the aluminium she wants.

Bauxite and iron ore are, however, her only long-term economic gains by her European conquests. She will have been able to seize stocks, especially in France, but diagram 41 of Vol. I. showing her big deficiency in oilseeds, cotton, wool, and copper still holds good. Her oil position is shown in diagram 104.



LOSSES (first 9 months)

British
Allied*
Neutral



483
ships

*including Norwegian, Danish, Dutch
& Belgian losses from outbreak of war.

Shipping : Allied Gains and Losses—

GREAT BRITAIN, on the other hand, can, with her control of the seas, turn to other sources of supply to compensate her for her European losses. To do this she needs ships, especially as she must, under the terms of the Neutrality Act, use her own ships to bring her ever-increasing supplies from the United States.

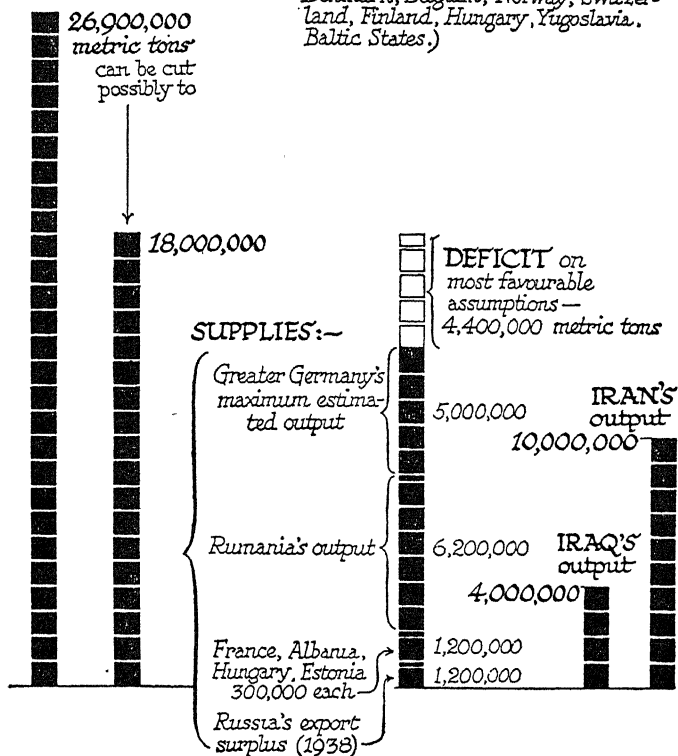
This diagram shows Britain's gains and losses in shipping in the first nine months of the war. A deduction from the figure given for the United Kingdom at the outbreak of war should be made because of the transfer of merchant ships to be naval auxiliaries ; and it is possible that, allowing for this and for the number of small vessels, her ocean-going tonnage was altogether no more than about 10 millions. And the attitude of the French and Danish Governments makes it uncertain how much of their merchant fleets will be at our disposal.

Nevertheless, Britain's losses by submarine action in the first nine months were so small that it is safe to assume that they have been more than offset by her acquisitions. And in the meantime she has been steadily increasing her shipping tonnage by building.

EUROPE under NAZI control:

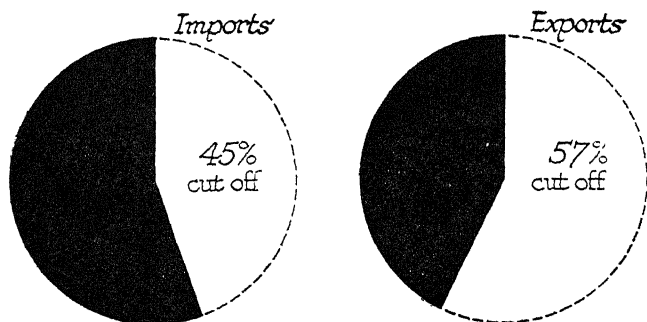
Estimated annual requirements
(including bunkers)

(i.e., Germany — including Austria, C. Slovakia & German Poland—France, Italy, Rumania, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, Belgium, Norway, Switzerland, Finland, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Baltic States.)

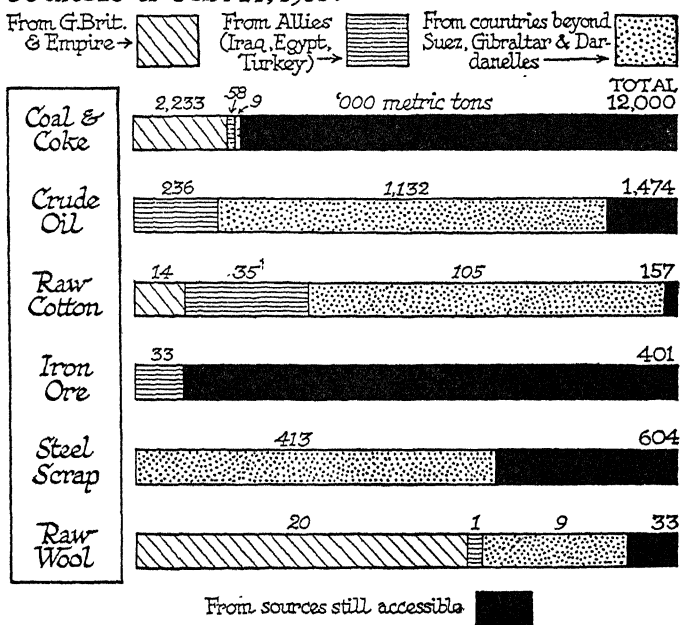


Germany's Oil Supplies—and Needs—

STEEL and oil are the most vital materials of war. Germany's steel supplies are now assured, but, as this diagram shows, she has yet to overcome her weakness in oil, though she will, of course, have been able to secure France's stocks. In Europe under Nazi control are included all the countries which by German conquests are now cut off from trade with the West ; and it is assumed that normal peace-time requirements of these countries and Greater Germany can be cut by as much as one-third. It is clear that, even allowing for a maximum output from Greater Germany of 5 million tons (including oil produced from coal and by other artificial means), and assuming that all Russia's export surplus is available for Europe, there is still a deficit of nearly $4\frac{1}{2}$ million tons. Apart from Russia, the nearest unconquered oil-producing country to Germany is Iraq, and beyond Iraq are the large oilfields of Iran.



SOURCES of SUPPLY, 1938:



Italy as a Belligerent—

ITALY's weakness in a long war is illustrated in this diagram. Her difficulty is that supplies coming to her from beyond Suez, Gibraltar, and the Dardanelles can be cut off at those points, and the diagram shows what proportions of her chief imports come from the British Empire and Britain's Allies—whose supplies are in any case lost to her—and from other countries beyond the three gateways to the Mediterranean where the British Navy should be able to seize them.

It will be seen that she is most favourably placed as regards iron ore—which she can now get from France and possibly North Africa—and coal. But by far the greater part of her coal supplies from Germany and Poland shown as still available to her used to come by sea, and transport difficulties may arise when it is attempted to send the same quantities by land.

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